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CORRESPONDENCE

How Shall We Save?

Sir:

. . . August Zinsser's article on mutual savings banks (NEW OUTLOOK, Feb. '35) read with very great interest. I regard his ideas as a very great improvement over our present system, but I still think they are far short of a purely coöperative system or a coöperative operated in connection with the postal system. . . .

Yours truly,
SMITH W. BROOKHART.

Hyattsville, Md.

—o—

Emerson vs. NEW OUTLOOK.

Sir:

It was a source of great satisfaction to my friends and to me to read your comments on the letter from Mr. Edwin Emerson which you published in the January '35 issue of the NEW OUTLOOK.

I long believed that your publication is dedicated to progressive principles and to the dissemination of thought for the welfare of society. Nailing down the writer of that letter to his activities and agitation as appears in "Hates Across the Sea" you have rendered a real public service. Your publication is entitled to much commendation.

Yours very truly,
SAMUEL H. ELLMANN.

New York City, N. Y.

—o—

Youth Problem.

Sir:

I have read with a great deal of interest Mr. Cedric Fowler's article on the youth problem in your January issue. He touches on a problem that is vital to our nation.

I am a steady reader of your magazine and find a great deal in it that is food for thought. . . .

Yours truly,
JACK FROST.

Dallas, Texas.

—o—

The Gov't Goes to Hollywood.

Sir:

I was much interested in the splendid article on the movies by Thompson Price in the February NEW OUTLOOK. It is written by an obviously well-informed person and discloses a refreshing absence of propaganda with which most articles on this subject abound. It is by far the best I have read in many years. Walter Lippmann's recent article on the movies aligns him with the exponents of competition as the economic beau ideal, while I discern in Mr. Price's article, the premise, that after all monopoly is essential in certain fields. In recent years, I have come to regard this as true, especially as to Motion Pictures, because of their well-defined public utility character.

The difficulty is, and has been, that the industry, as at present constituted, prefers the continuance of an illegal private monopoly, for reasons not difficult to understand, to a monopoly legalized and subject to a governmental supervision of its economic, as distinguished from its artistic activities....The conclusion that monopoly, in some form, is essential to economic success in several industries comprehensively embraced under the term "public utilities" appears not to be unreasonable, yet this in turn, leads to the conclusion which seems to be inescapable, that if we must have monopolies to sustain big business enterprises, me must have governmental trade regulation and public protection to avoid the inevitable consequences which always result from the concentration of uncontrolled monopolistic powers.

And so, when the reconstruction of the present movie wreck is finally undertaken, I commend to those who embark upon it, the consideration of Exhibitor's coöperation under governmental direction, supervision and control. This I am satisfied is the soundest foundation upon which to base the much needed economic renaissance of the trade.

Sincerely yours,
WILLIAM MARSTON SEABURY.

New York City, N. Y.

—o—

Nobody Shoots . . .

Sir:

I note in your correspondence column, many communications the purpose of which seems to be to call attention to political and social evils and to suggest remedies for their cure.

Permit me to suggest a plea for a class of persons concerning which I have failed to find any favorable comment, although this class embraces a large and growing number whose exploits appear on the front pages of our daily papers. I refer to the kidnapers. It may be claimed that these people are rough in their methods at times; that they seek by force and violence to compel those who have accumulated wealth to separate themselves from large chunks of money for the benefit of the poor and needy kidnapers and their dependents.

It seems to me that these worthy persons have many reputable precedents for their actions. Robin Hood took from those who had and helped out those who had not. Sir Henry Morgan was knighted for his exploits on the Spanish Main. In our own time such notable characters as President Roosevelt, Secretary Wallace, Secretary Tugwell and Upton Sinclair have consistently affirmed the doctrine that the wealth of those who by hard work and thrift have acquired property should by law, be divided among those who, through incompetence, extravagence, shiftlessness or misfortune, have accumulated little or nothing.

To be sure, the Socialists and Brain Trusters seek to cover a greater scope of territory in their collection and distribution. The same principle, however, prevails. Take from the class of *"haves"* and give to

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the *"have nots."* Destroy all incentive to ambition, effort or self-denial so that those who have sown nothing may reap the crop of him who has planted, cared for and harvested.

As measured by the philosophy of the popular school of political thought, the kidnaper is guilty only of the crime of impetuosity. The violence he may be forced to by reason of the unwillingness of his clients is not greater than the suffering which public confiscation of wealth will impose on aged people, widows and orphans.

But the kidnaper is too impetuous and perhaps somewhat greedy. If he would possess his soul with patience and content himself with a more moderate share of the rich man's pelf, it is altogether possible that the present Congress, at the behest of the President, will permit him to share in the distribution without fear and annoyance from federal officers and state police.

Let us then be not forgetful of the poor kidnaper in his attempts to better his condition, while we crack our voices in loud applause for the members of the American Soviet.

Respectfully yours,

FRANK H. FOSTER.

Juneau, Alaska.

—o—

Four Out of Five Clara Bows.

Sir:

Despite the sadistic urge toward reform exhibited by some of the *intoleragentia* of the present period, I am inclined to think that the "hare-brained trust," hopping here and there with their alphabets, may prove the contention that a group of monkeys, operating typewriters, might, by coincidence of course, produce something at least no more fallacious than some of the economic theories which explode even while being dignified as laws.

Without entering into any discussion of the inherent necessity of formulating a system which will equalize the stress upon each member of the Economic-Sociological-Political Triad, it can still be shown that there is a national necessity for standardization before it is possible to attain the standard of living to which our citizens are entitled, considering only the economic aspect of the standard of living in terms of useful goods consumed.

Presumably, every manufacturer worthy of the name knows or can find out just how to manufacture his products to yield a maximum of carefree service. Yet, there are in each field only a few who are attempting to do more than compromise a "satisfactory" product with the price which they feel can be obtained for the product. Any compromise between quality and price is a criminal waste of national resources. Standardization of quality need not mean regimentation but rather a scaling upward of the quality so that sub-standard, wasteful products can be forced from the market.

Standardization need not limit individuality of production except as it will have a tendency to eliminate the "chiseler" who is in the habit of cashing in on a competitor's educational advertising with an inferior product on a price basis. Industrial history will show that practically every advertised commodity has been copied

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as closely as possible and then an attempt has been made to cash in on a competitor's advertising. Such competition is extremely wasteful, compelling extremely heavy advertising expenditures on any new product (which is ultimately passed on to the consumer as a "sales-tax"). By compelling the chiseler to meet competition on a basis of equivalence of quality or to admit inferiority, much of this type of competition would be eliminated, thus permitting the regular manufacturer to reduce the consumer's cost by reducing the "advertising sales-tax" and still increase the volume of sales.

Not being familiar with the canned field of either edibles or opinions, I shall refrain from direct comment on the article (Winning A Gov't A, NEW OUTLOOK, Dec. '34). However, I will say that I object strenuously to paying a sales-tax of 40 per cent to be informed that "four out of five have it"—there's still only one Clara Bow and I must be meeting the fifth all the time anyway; I object to having my personal fastidiousness questioned in every magazine (would you like a cake of carbonized soap for X-Mas). Possibly the minor regimentation of quality standardization may be more objectionable to the consumer than the attempted regimentation of opinion through advertising, but so far only the manufacturer is squawking about it.

Today, business is handicapped by the extension of the methods of the handicraft era into the mass-production era with no analogous advance in methods of distribution of either merchandise or credit. Standardization, if properly carried out, is the initial step in the logical advance from the archaic business methods inherited from the far distant ancestors of Judas Iscariot.

Of course, not being a professional economist (I haven't yet had to ask for Federal aid for my own individual economy) it is probably heresy for me to criticize any opinion derived from such sources and yet when a magazine which has always stood for progress publishes articles so regressive in nature (or is regression the back door to the Liberty League?), it is difficult to refrain from a little mild comment.

Very progressively yours,
WARD CLELAND.

Ft. Wayne, Ind.

—o—

In Our Town.

Sir:

In your December number I noticed an article, "Nobody Starves," by a Ruth Stewart—I don't know where she lives but she certainly said the right thing at the right time about the way the dole is handled, etc. All honor and glory to her, whoever she may be, but give us some more of the same line. It is straight goods, according to what I see here in our town anyway.

Sincerely yours for the best,
MRS. GEORGE STEWART.

Des Moines, Iowa.

—o—

The Forty Days.

Sir:

The book review of Franz Werfel's "The Forty Days of Musa Dagh," by Robert

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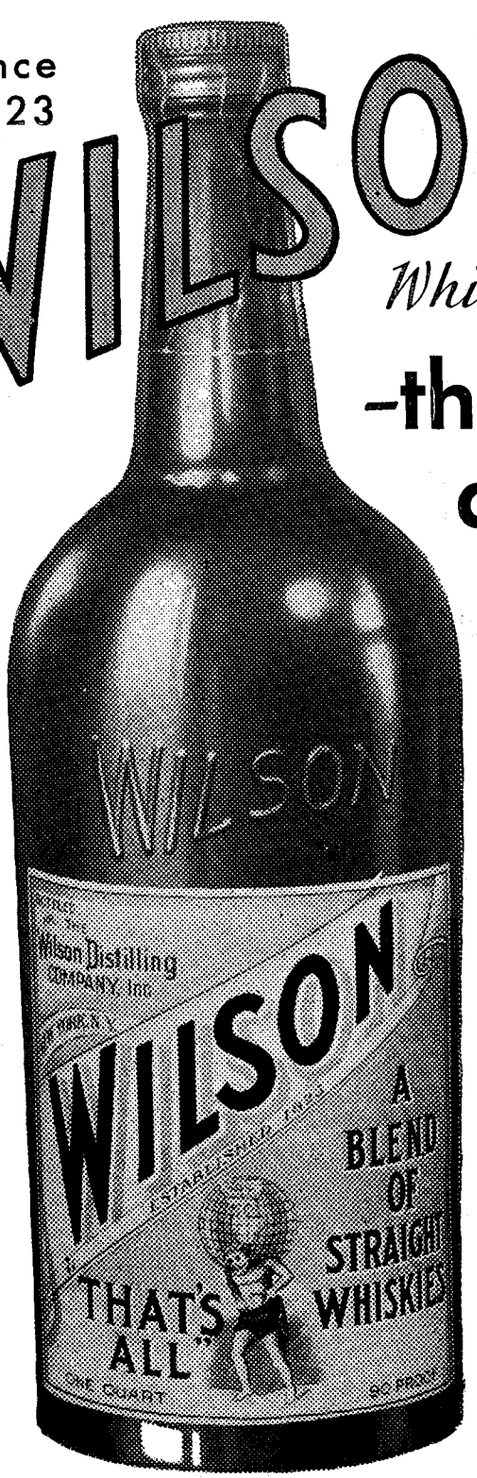

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Cantwell in your Dec. 1934, issue prompted me to write the following lines and adjust the false impressions which it seems the reviewer possesses.

Mr. Cantwell asserts that "A novel of Armenian life is necessarily a novel of Armenian persecutions." He is not to blame for his impressions and views on matters and subjects foreign to him, as the case is of your reviewer, for Mr. Cantwell confesses that "his knowledge of Armenian history was limited, but sufficient to let (him) feel prejudiced against what Herr Werfel might have to say about it."

Herr Werfel, as far as my knowledge of Armenian history is concerned, is the only foreign author who has studied the Armenian life and psychology painstakingly and diligently and thus has written a book as authoritatively as one expects from a foreign scholar. The novel, based on purely historical facts, is only a trivial fraction of the Armenian heroism for idealism and desperate resistance for freedom and self-preservation.

What America has heard about Armenians was through the American missionaries in Turkey. During the World War they appealed to the sympathy of the civilized world and in order to achieve effective financial results they only talked about the "starving Armenian." No one thought and no one took pains to show the other side of the picture. None of our friends said that we stood by the Allies and fought for the general cause, for freedom and preservation of human rights. No one pictured the superhuman struggle which Armenians put up against the Turks. After a long and unexpected silence, here comes a German-Jew who "snatches from the Hades of all that was, this incomprehensible destiny of the Armenian nation."

As an Armenian who has witnessed the horrors of the World War, I can assure the American public that our struggles had close similarity to that of American struggles for freedom and liberty from the British yoke.

The difference between American and Armenian struggles was that we had to fight on two fronts; first against an organized and all powerful nation, the Turk, and secondly the European selfish and greedy diplomacy. Our voices for social justice and our struggles for liberty and human equality were suppressed and drowned in the intrigues and interests of the Great Powers.

As an Armenian I have but little to say against the Turkish atrocities.

The war is over between Armenia and Turkey. But what I want to point out is the fact that, for the sake of historical accuracy, the Armenians should not be pictured as a nation without national pride.

To be sure, we lost heavily during our struggle with Turkey, but today we have the consolation that ours was a just cause. We fought for an ideal and are proud for it. . . . As our foremost historian, Moses Khorenatzi, puts it, "Although we are small in number, but many deeds of great heroism are found in our midst."

SAMUEL H. TOUMAYAN.
West Medford, Mass.

—o—

$60,000.

Editors of The Reader's Digest:

The article "Behind Your Movie Diet" in your January issue, condensed from the NEW OUTLOOK, contains a misstatement which amuses me as an almost perfect example of the way prices paid for motion picture rights sometimes get exaggerated. I don't know who does the exaggerating—maybe it's done in Hollywood, though I should think they would hurt their own market by so doing—but at any rate, here are the facts in one case. The statement is:

"Laemmle Junior's fascination for stories which get listings as 'best sellers' led him to pay $60,000 for *Only Yesterday*."

The fact is that the Universal Pictures Corporation paid $5,000 for the motion picture rights of *Only Yesterday*—a sum which was divided between the publishers and myself as author. I mention this only because the last report I heard gave the amount as $25,000, and now it has got to $60,000, and I'd like to see if I can stop it from getting to $100,000.

FREDERICK LEWIS ALLEN.

The cost of the story of *"Only Yesterday"* is on the books of the Universal Story Department as $60,000. In the breakdown of the amount $18,000 is assigned to the continuity, which is the actual shooting script used in production. To Mr. Allen $5,000, and to Stefan Zweig for rights to his *"Letters of an Unknown Woman,"* $7,500. Eleven other authors represented with varying amounts, are: Ben Hecht, Gene Fowler, William Hurlbut—the charge for whose service is an allocation of salary—George O'Neill, Arthur Richman (at $7,500), Gladys Lehman, Cuthbert Glasmon, John Bright, Howard Emmett Rogers, Eleanor Dolkhart and John Stahl, the director, who also had a very large hand in fashioning the scenario. Hecht and Fowler appear as collaborators, their version costing $5,000. Although it was discarded for purposes of this production, it was subsequently sold to Paramount for $3,000 under the working title *"Catastrophe."*

—Ed.

—o—

Steam Fights Back.

Sir:

. . . Donald Wilhelm's article "Steam Fights Back" in the January NEW OUTLOOK is an interesting article and Mr. Wilhelm's story is attractively set forth.

Sincerely,
W. P. KENNEY, President,
Great Northern Railway Company.
St. Paul, Minnesota.

—o—

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NEW OUTLOOK

"Who sees the trends anticipates the news"

Road Ahead . . . .

It seems that one man's anger in 1919 has prepared a surprise for those assiduous workers who have been engaged for a decade in dismantling the Treaty of Versailles. A future generation, studying that document, predicts Guy Hickok, will exclaim, *"Why, it isn't here!"* They will be referring to the phantom clause.

No international coöperation in a world of strict nationalism will be necessary to get that one out of the treaty. But much of this element is going to be needed in the future, it seems, if we are ever to have a Second, and Regular Standing World Army larger but equally as effective as The First World Army, which has just set a precedent for world peace of the future. And a great deal more of such spirit will be needed to bring a truce in The Battle of the Wave Lengths which is now beginning. It is another and striking example of the unsuspected power of the machines created by 20th Century science. You will find additional proof of this power in "Unexpected Cities," an exciting account of how the wheel and the wing are changing the average man's concept of the world; while in Mr. Spraragen's report "Research Eyes on the Future" there is revealed how science, in order to be served, will shortly begin a mass redistribution of population.

MARCH, 1935

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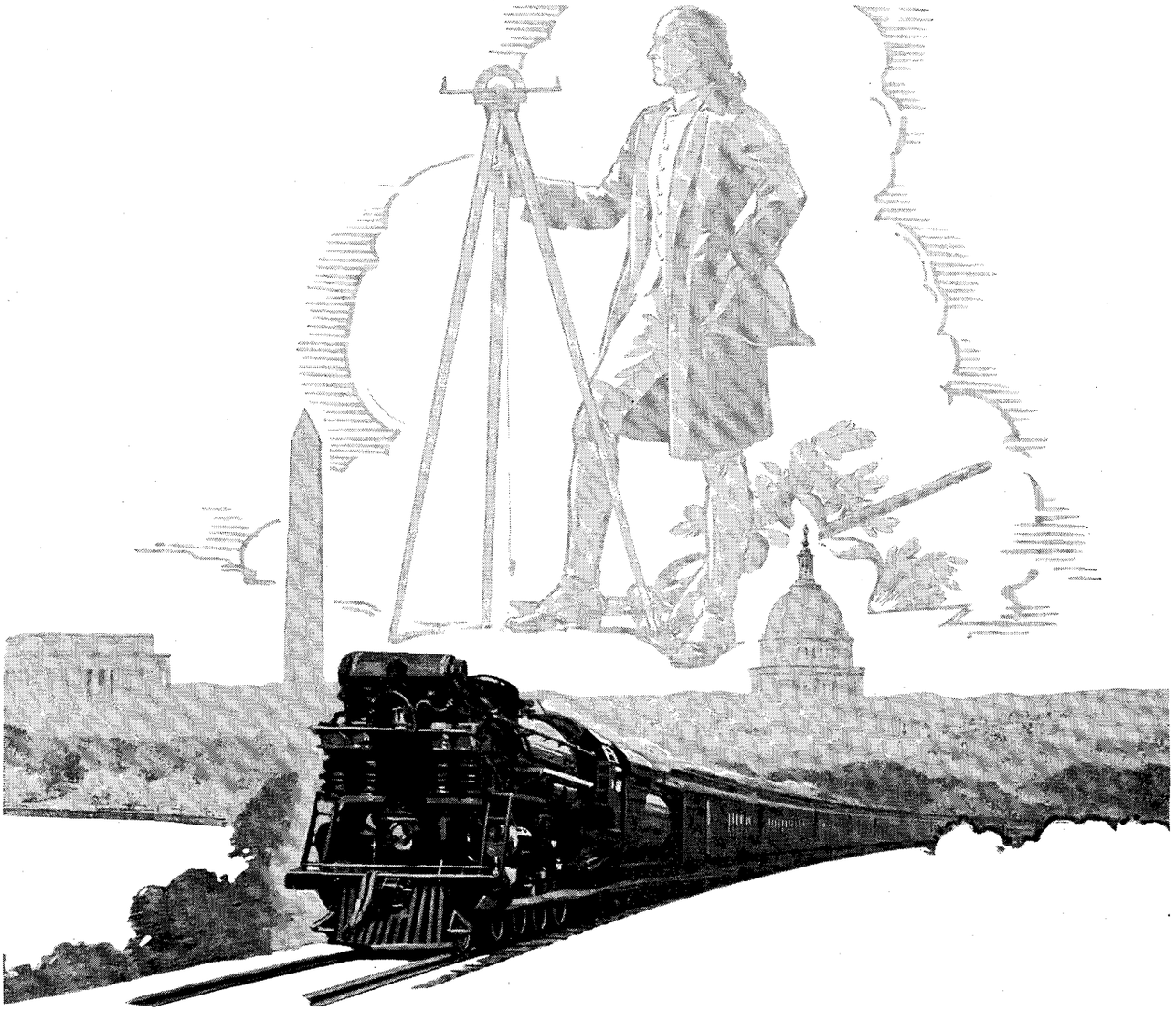

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NEW OUTLOOK

Editorial

HALF-WAY MARK

THE Roosevelt II Administration has reached the half-way mark of that tenure of office which it was authorized to hold by the American electorate on November 8, 1932.

It is a record of action—mostly ill-considered. It is a record of astounding failures. It is a record of abandoned experiments smilingly excused and apologized for by their perpetrator even before they were undertaken. It is a record of submission in the interest of politics to the pressure of privileged minorities which has nothing to be ashamed of in the face of the most corrupt plutocratic administrations of the past. It is a record which will produce the panicky condition of impending inflation just in time for convenient use again by political spellbinders of that old electioneering bleat, "Don't change horses in the middle of the stream!" It is a record to be anything but proud of. It is a record against which natural recovery is waging a superhuman struggle to reach us.

It is the record of an attempt to correct the unbalance which threw the nation's economic machine out of gear. But from the very beginning of that admittedly worthwhile undertaking there has been an astounding receptiveness to every tinker's pet theory followed by expedient compromise in the inevitable conflict between all of those theories.

It is becoming the popular thing to defend that poor record by saying, "Well, it isn't as bad as the record of inaction produced by the last Administration." But the absurdity of such a defense is becoming more and more apparent. Can any such defense be an acceptable excuse for the prohibitive cost of dangerous and unsuccessful experimentation, which must be paid for some time? For the violation of the sanctity of contracts? For the destruction of character? For the voiding of principles, which may seem immaterial in the hour of panic and crisis, but which the future will need?

In its effort to attain, and again last November to retain, power at Washington it was necessary for the Democratic Administration to give, at least, tacit approval to exponents of the most demagogic thought. In doing this it has lifted the lid of a dangerous Pandora's box. It is becoming increasingly embarrassed by these wild men which it brought forth into the public arena. It has already suffered several important defeats at the hands of these same wild men. As the Administration's own plans fail, a discouraged and panicky public lends a more willing ear to the unfulfillable promises of these rabble rousers. In the end this may prove to be an astute political trick; but win or lose, it will stand for all time as the quintessence of shady politics.—F. W.

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The World in Five Spheres

BOOKS

It is probably a commentary of some kind on the state of contemporary culture that we habitually refer to most of the books being produced these days by a mere negative term, not for what they are, but for what they are not. Non-fiction, we call them; it is as if, instead of coining the word movies to describe a new form of entertainment that has grown up, we should continue to call it non-theatre. Non-fiction, however, it is, and there is a lot of it being published; most of the books of the last month come under this sweeping head, with a furtive novel here and there, and a good collection of short stories—John O'Hara's "The Doctor's Son," to be explicit—standing out as the only important imaginative contribution. Beginning with Dr. Hans Zinsser's cheerful and ingratiating history of typhus, "Rats, Lice and History" (Little, Brown) and including such varied items as Vincent Sheean's "Personal History" (Doubleday Doran) and Egon Kisch's "Changing Asia" (Knopf), works of non-fiction have dominated the field completely, and have been so sprightly and original that most of the efforts of the imaginative writers seem by comparison literal, barren, unimaginative, dull.

Dr. Zinsser's book is the best example. There is enough imagination revealed in this factual study to fertilize a dozen contemporary novels. Dr. Zinsser professes to be writing the biography of typhus, but he is almost through his book by the time he reaches his subject, and in the meantime he has informed his readers on the rise and fall of a dozen major diseases, and examined the physical and spiritual consequences of a dozen of the great plagues of history.

A work in which the Crusades are analyzed in terms of the physical condition of the Crusaders, and Napoleon's defeat accounted for by a careful examination of the health of his soldiers, may seem at first glance merely eccentric and irreverent, but it is Dr. Zinsser's gift that he can state his case

(*Continued on page* 56)

PRESS

Most of the latter part of February for those who really believe that they read their daily newspapers was a period of readjustment in reading habits, a period of getting accustomed once again to not finding their matutinal and eventide journals filled with column upon column of court testimony. To some of the more conscientious it meant abrupt stoppage of the practice of skipping; to others it represented a necessity to find new interests and excitements to replace those which had been provided by the graphic and dramatic Q & A, by all odds the best part of the reportage of that now historic furor, the Hauptmann trial.

The change-over was not made easier by the fact that immediately after the trial there was a dearth of important and sensational news: the long awaited Supreme Court decision on the gold clause was to all intents and purposes only a one-day story. In a news sense it did not fill the void. There was an attempt in some quarters to make the Kennamer trial at Pawnee, Okla., a national story but, generally speaking, it failed.

The one significant occurrence of

(*Continued on page* 59)

RADIO

Well up in the list of radio problems is the question of comedy. Next to the age old dispute—as old as radio itself—on advertising time and methods, it is the prime worry of the executives and impresarios who provide the American public with its air wave entertainment. What makes the fans laugh? What persuades the listener to turn his set to one entertainer and leave it there from first announcement through theme song, commercial ballyhoo, program to signature and end? And, most important, what is it that keeps the fans amused, once you've got their interest up to the point of tuning in on a program?

Of course if radio executives knew, if they had a formula down pat that would guarantee listener response every time it was employed, they would be so much wiser than anyone else in the entertainment business that they would qualify as the smartest showmen in the world. To their great regret, they don't know. Contrary to a widespread notion, comedy is not a matter of rule of thumb. There are no laws and regulations which once followed will produce an unfailing laugh. Stage

(*Continued on page* 58)

STAGE and SCREEN

While the Victorian trend of stage and screen remarked in February continues unabated, one interesting symptom being the reincarnated matinee girl who now appears at the stage doors of Leslie Howard and Katherine Cornell, the most striking immediate characteristic of Broadway visible in this month's overview, is the promise of a return to the road-show system. Contrary to all authoritative findings heretofore, based on exhaustive eyeball and pin-prick tests on what for at least a decade has been an acknowledged cadaver, the road is not dead but sleepeth.

Since the supposed murder of the road by movies, radio and automobile, Broadway stage plays have been reaching outlying communities by being sold to regional dramatic organizations, established stock companies and amateur groups which have gone through their part of the arrangement often while the original productions were still running in the Longacre district. But that, it would appear, has been just a temporary expedient of the changing times.

Proof that the reversion is starting is Broadway's stronger-than-usual identification of current plays with their casts, for this inevitably means that there can be no satisfactory shipment of plays to the hinterland unless they are accompanied by the players associated with them by radio and press in public consciousness. Scarcely any contemporaneous audience in a city away from New York would be content with

(*Continued on page* 61)

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The Phantom Clause

by Guy Hickok

The "war guilt" admission supposedly signed by Germany in the Treaty of Versailles does not exist! This is a story of how a peeved translator duped the world.

IT BEGAN even before the ink was dry. It will continue for many years, the whittling away of the substance of the Treaty of Versailles; for Germany is united in a determination not to rest until the last trace of the hated "diktat" has disappeared.

On a bright day in June, 1919, the alleged great of twenty-seven nations stalked or shuffled up the wide *escalier d'honneur* and seated themselves in a hollow square in the great Hall of Mirrors of the Palace of Versailles. Here Bismarck had proclaimed the German Empire in 1871. Here, now, Germany was to be humbled.

By a back stairway (it might be called the stairway of dishonor, to distinguish it from the honor stairway used by the Allied delegates), two obscure and worried Germans, unknown though armed with plenipotentiary powers, were ushered into the same great hall, and conducted to a table.

With a hand which he strove to keep from trembling Baron Becq de Fouquieres, master of ceremonies, handed the first German a pen. He wrote quickly "Herman Müller." The second German wrote "Dr. Bell." His first name was not recorded.

After Germany Signed

GERMANY had signed. The show was really over so far as the suspense was concerned; but it went on as a spectacle for hours as sixty-six Allied delegates, beginning with Woodrow Wilson and ending with a short gentleman named J. A. Buero, advanced one by one and each took the pen, signed his name, and pressed the seal in a blob of hot wax binding the signatures together with a great red ribbon.

The Crumbling Begins

THE writer watched it all in great discomfort, packed in a perspiring mob of newspaper and magazine writers and others masquerading as such, and with a 200 pound lady novelist wriggling in his totally inadequate lap, both of us on a still more inadequate spindle-legged gilt chair which creaked ominously with the novelist's every breath.

At that very moment sixty-five million Germans were determined that the Treaty of Versailles should not endure. They were furious at what it contained, and still more furious at something they had been misled to believe it contained, a stigma upon them all as a race and as a nation. Already their foreign office and diplomatic service, holdovers from the Empire to the Republic, and which remain practically unchanged in the Nazi Reich, had begun the patient, unremitting labor which will be counted finished only when, of the treaty signed that day, no vestige remains.

Almost immediately the edifice built up by the treaty began to crumble. First to go was Article 227, arraigning "William II of Hohenzollern, for a supreme offense against international morality and

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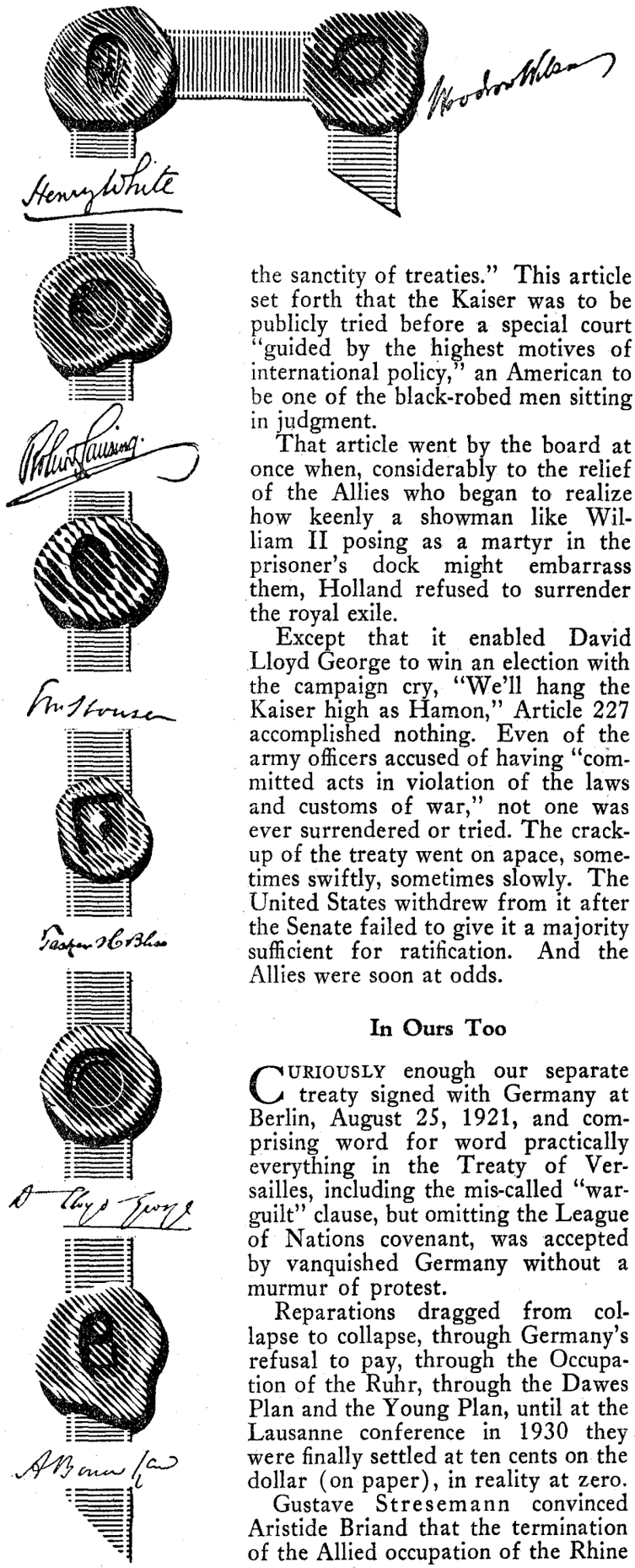

the sanctity of treaties." This article set forth that the Kaiser was to be publicly tried before a special court "guided by the highest motives of international policy," an American to be one of the black-robed men sitting in judgment.

That article went by the board at once when, considerably to the relief of the Allies who began to realize how keenly a showman like William II posing as a martyr in the prisoner's dock might embarrass them, Holland refused to surrender the royal exile.

Except that it enabled David Lloyd George to win an election with the campaign cry, "We'll hang the Kaiser high as Hamon," Article 227 accomplished nothing. Even of the army officers accused of having "committed acts in violation of the laws and customs of war," not one was ever surrendered or tried. The crack-up of the treaty went on apace, sometimes swiftly, sometimes slowly. The United States withdrew from it after the Senate failed to give it a majority sufficient for ratification. And the Allies were soon at odds.

In Ours Too

CURIOUSLY enough our separate treaty signed with Germany at Berlin, August 25, 1921, and comprising word for word practically everything in the Treaty of Versailles, including the mis-called "war-guilt" clause, but omitting the League of Nations covenant, was accepted by vanquished Germany without a murmur of protest.

Reparations dragged from collapse to collapse, through Germany's refusal to pay, through the Occupation of the Ruhr, through the Dawes Plan and the Young Plan, until at the Lausanne conference in 1930 they were finally settled at ten cents on the dollar (on paper), in reality at zero.

Gustave Stresemann convinced Aristide Briand that the termination of the Allied occupation of the Rhine and its bridge-heads five years before 1935, the year fixed in the Treaty, would end the rising tide of nationalism in Germany and bring about an era of friendly relations. In 1930 the French and Belgians marched out. Hitler and the Nazis became more powerful than ever and Stresemann and Briand, seeing that their hopes were only a mirage, quite opportunely died.

On January 13 of this year another of the "chains of Versailles" was broken when the Saar voted to return to Germany. This time, however, the terms of the treaty had been lived up to to the last letter. Still more recently England and France have showed signs of recognizing that the military clauses limiting Germany's armaments on land, sea and in the air, are, as Germany says they are, really dead.

What Remains

ONE might well wonder if anything of the treaty that is really important remains. As a matter of fact a good deal remains, and enough to keep Germany still thoroughly unhappy. She has still to recover her 1914 boundaries in Europe, and to regain her colonial empire. She has no great territories in Africa, no far-flung islands in distant seas, no foothold in Asia.

And she still suffers from the stigma of "war guilt." As it is the continuing policy of Germany, under any form of government, to throw off the whole of the *"diktät"* of Versailles, we may expect the hammering to shift, once the question of armaments is settled to her satisfaction, to the treaty's remaining fragments. And we may assume that it is in the matter of colonial possessions that she will receive satisfaction last, if ever. Britain will cling doggedly to the All Red route from Cairo to the Cape of Good Hope, won with the mandate over German East Africa. And if Britain clings to her winnings the other Powers will cling to theirs.

In Europe, Germany's efforts to restore the boundaries of 1914 will be fiercely contested; but it is entirely possible, nevertheless, that she may regain all the territory she lost, save Alsace-Lorraine, or that by absorbing Austria she may yet win an even greater victory.

Easiest of all her problems is that of shaking off the stigma of war-

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guilt, for that involves no territorial, financial, or economic changes; and besides, *it is not there!* There is not, and never was, a verdict of war-guilt in the Versailles Treaty. All Germany has to do is to correct a misapprehension created deliberately by her own delegation at Versailles. For incredible as it may seem such war-guilt verdict as has ever existed was written in by no other than Count Brockdorff-Rantzau, chief German delegate until the moment of signing the treaty, when he resigned. The world-wide illusion of the existence of a war-guilt clause, created by Brockdorff-Rantzau, has persisted for sixteen long years. But the fact is that the countless political and non-political speakers and writers who have fulminated on the subject have been refuting a charge which the Allied statesmen, though they repeated it verbally numberless times, took great pains not to make on paper, particularly on the paper on which the Versailles Treaty was written.

"Why It Isn't Here!"

DUE to a piece of incredible carelessness on the part of the Allied delegations, the German people, the people most immediately concerned and the most keenly disturbed by the "war-guilt" charge, have never seen an authentic text of the treaty; and the present generation probably never will. The writer ventures to predict that another generation, however, going back to sources to find out what it was that so aroused their fathers and grandfathers, will look at each other in puzzled incredulity and murmur, "Why it isn't here! It did not say that at all!"

The writer, present in Paris during all the treaty making, was also present when Count Brockdorff-Rantzau was let out of the high picket fence which surrounded his hotel to receive the treaty. He was brought to a much smarter and newer hotel, the Trianon Palace, a *de luxe* tourist resort, and handed the treaty only in English and French. The Allies should have handed him also a certified translation of the document into German. For it was here that they slipped badly.

Brockdorff-Rantzau, coldly haughty in the best German manner but with trembling legs, carried the thick book back to his hotel; and he and his aides made their own translation into German. Anyone with the slightest familiarity with two languages knows what a translater can do in choosing harsh or gentle synonyms. Count Brockdorff not only exercised his prerogative there; but he inserted words not synonyms for any which the Allies had written.

In the famous Article 231 he added words which the Allies had taken great pains to leave out, not for reasons of conscience, but for reasons of expediency.

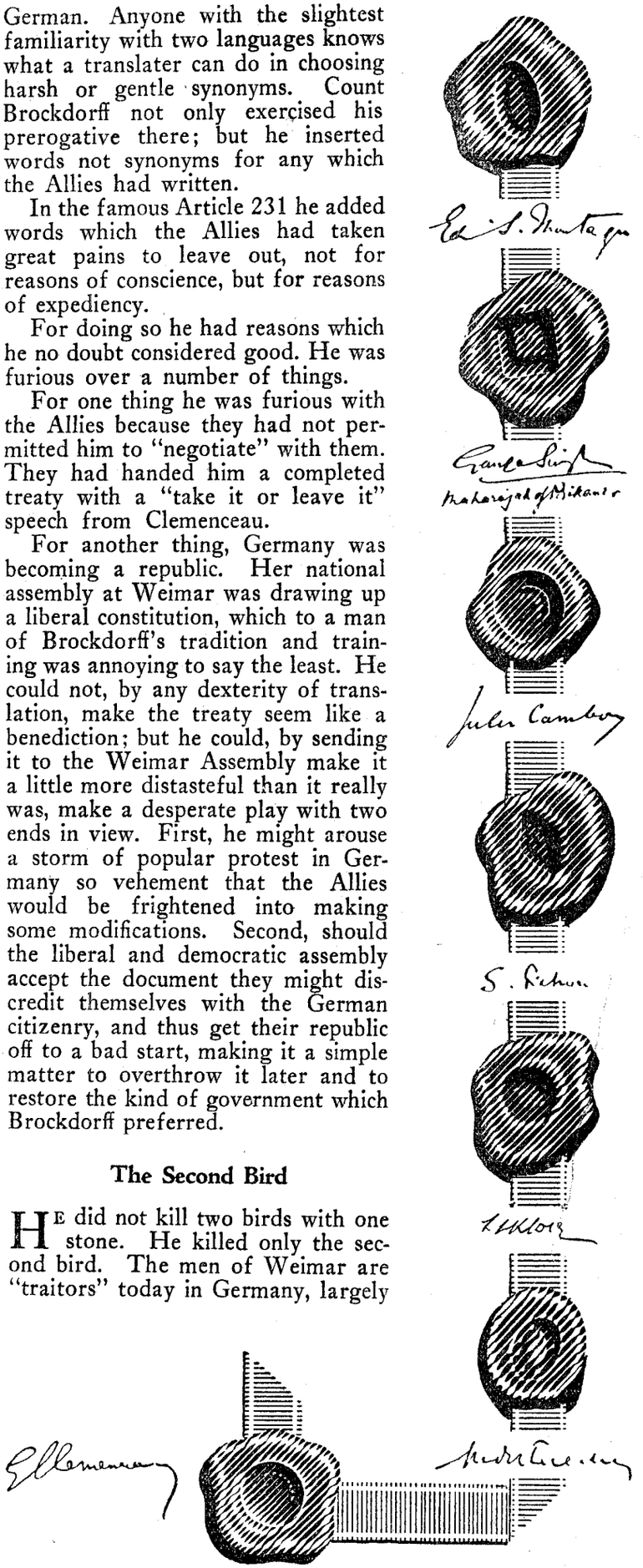
For doing so he had reasons which he no doubt considered good. He was furious over a number of things.

For one thing he was furious with the Allies because they had not permitted him to "negotiate" with them. They had handed him a completed treaty with a "take it or leave it" speech from Clemenceau.

For another thing, Germany was becoming a republic. Her national assembly at Weimar was drawing up a liberal constitution, which to a man of Brockdorff's tradition and training was annoying to say the least. He could not, by any dexterity of translation, make the treaty seem like a benediction; but he could, by sending it to the Weimar Assembly make it a little more distasteful than it really was, make a desperate play with two ends in view. First, he might arouse a storm of popular protest in Germany so vehement that the Allies would be frightened into making some modifications. Second, should the liberal and democratic assembly accept the document they might discredit themselves with the German citizenry, and thus get their republic off to a bad start, making it a simple matter to overthrow it later and to restore the kind of government which Brockdorff preferred.

The Second Bird

HE did not kill two birds with one stone. He killed only the second bird. The men of Weimar are "traitors" today in Germany, largely



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because they accepted, after much protest, of cause, the verdict of "war-guilt" that Brockdorff-Rantzau, not the Allies, imposed upon them.

Let us go back now and see what the Allies really did write, how and why they wrote it, and exactly how Count Brockdorff-Rantzau altered it, and how the simple fact that he did alter it escaped all save a very few, how it escaped the German people altogether.

When the delegates of twenty-seven Allied nations convened in Paris on December 12, 1918, war guilt was in the air. Every chief delegate had expressed his conviction on that subject; and most of them went right on expressing such convictions verbally over and over. On paper, in the treaty, it was another matter.

The conference held an opening session and split up into committees and sub-committees, with the Supreme Council at the top and the Big Four, Clemenceau, Wilson, Lloyd George and Orlando, above even the Supreme Council.

Up-Popped Larnaude

THE advisability of including some expression on the subject of war-guilt had come up long before the conference convened. The French were for it. They proposed a "plan of procedure" as early as November, 1918, suggesting among other things that the treaty should contain "stipulations of a moral character; a recognition by Germany of her responsibility and of the premeditation of her leaders . . . and a solemn disavowal of violations of international law and of crimes committed against humanity."

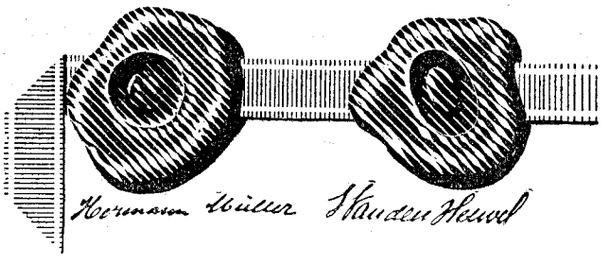
Nothing was done about it then. But when the big committee named to draw up the covenant of the League of Nations met, a French delegate named Larnaude proposed embodying a war-guilt clause in the League pact. There was some debate; and Lord Robert Cecil, now Viscount Cecil, caused the proposal to be dropped on the ground that it would be out of place in any document destined to serve as a basis for an association of states.

Monsieur Larnaude then popped up in another committee, the one on Responsibilities. This committee consisted of fifteen members, and its task was to determine "the responsibility for the war," and "facts concerning violation of the laws and customs of war committed by Germany and her allies on land, on the sea and in the air, during the present war." The war technically was not over yet, you see.

Cold Water Was Poured

LARNAUDE demanded the establishment by a tribunal "in as incontrovertible and irrefutable a manner as possible, and by proven facts, that the responsibility of the war was incumbent upon Germany." Sir Ernest Pollock, chairman of this committee, poured cold water generously on Monsieur Larnaude's proposal, on the ground that it was thoroughly impracticable.

"No matter how many tribunals we establish,"



he said, "and no matter how many decisions they hand down, we will never convince the Germans that they are guilty of the war. We must not attempt impossibilities." He added that historians had already made their firm decision on that point, that they had established Germany's guilt (but had they?), and that the committee need not occupy itself with the matter. Nobody supported the Frenchman's demand. The best he could do was to get the committee to vote a resolution, which did not go into the treaty, condemning the violation of Belgium. As to the general question of war-guilt, the committee decided that this must remain entirely a matter of opinion and that it had no place in the treaty.

Insofar as the committee dealt with guilt at all it was with the guilt of individuals, "former enemies' guilty, during the war, of violations of the rights of men, the laws of humanity and the exigencies of the public conscience"; in other words, guilt of the Kaiser and of various officers accused of unduly rough-shod behavior. This committee reported out no clause on the subject of national war-guilt. And it put itself on record that no matter what the personal conviction of its members might be, the question was one to delegate to "the researches of historians."

A third committee was that on reparations, a committee composed almost entirely of bankers, financiers and lawyers. It was to report on "the total of reparations to be paid by the enemy powers, on the method of payment, on the form in which and the time at which the payments should be effected, and on the guarantees necessary to obtain payment."

The Lawyers' Idea

IT was also to discover or invent a juridical reason for requiring reparations payments; and the lawyers early decided that the basis of the claim should be that of civil responsibility (not criminal responsibility), due to a fault committed and the damage resulting therefrom. The French and Belgian lawyers presented at the very first meeting a memorandum pointing out that "all jurisprudence and all modern legal systems . . . proclaim in almost identical terms . . . that anyone who by his fault shall have damaged the life, the body, the health, the liberty or the property of another (quoting article 823 of the German Civil Code), should be condemned to re-establish the order of things which would have existed if the circumstances giving place to the obligation had not occurred." The memorandum stated that as the German invasion had

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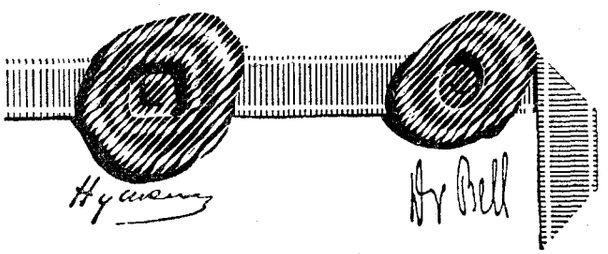

caused the damages, Germany must be required to repair them integrally.

Day after day the committee went on splitting legal hairs, the Belgians on February 5 offering unsuccessfully a clause for embodiment in the treaty using exact expressions from the German Civil Code. On February 10, stone-deaf Prime Minister William M. Hughes of Australia, the man of whom President Wilson said desperately "He can't hear and won't read," and on February 19 Mr. Mori, the Japanese, brought up the same principle of damages due by the person causing the damage. On February 14, Prime Minister Hughes burst out again, saying that the tie between reparations and aggression was independent of the question raised by the American delegation as to whether the war did, or did not, constitute a violation of international law.

Article 231 Appears

"THE costs resulting from a wrong should be paid by those who caused the wrong," he shouted, as deaf men will. "We demand justice, not revenge, not a punishment but only a reparation of damages."

In spite of some confusion of verbiage it was plain that members of the committee were trying to avoid using the term "war-guilt" in the sense of who caused the war, of who brought it about, as the juridical basis for damage claims. They fell on the use of the word "aggression," meaning the invasion, which occured *after* the war began, as the best basis for the claim.

No matter who was guilty of causing the war, it was clear that Germany had invaded France and Belgium, and that France and Belgium had not invaded Germany. Emphasis of the claim from that point of view was made by Lord Sumner, of Great Britain, who said that in accord with the American delegate, he gave the word "responsible" the meaning "responsible according to the accepted categories of damages."

All of this debate was sterile, however, in one respect. It produced no wording that could be written into the treaty as the opening of the clauses on reparations. It was the Supreme Council which finally produced Article 231 which Brockdorff-Rantzau later converted into the copiously cursed "war-guilt" clause. The committee mentioned above made an incomplete report explaining that it had been unable to agree on how much of the war costs should be included in the reparations; and on March 24 it dumped the whole problem into the unwilling lap of the Supreme Council.

On the same day two American experts, Norman Davis, now American ambassador-at-large, and Thomas Lamont, then and now partner of J. Pierpont Morgan, submitted a separate report to President Wilson. It was fairly long and among other things suggested recognition by the enemy of its obligations in the following words, which incidentally were not used in the treaty:

"The enemy states recognize that the violence and the extent of their aggression render impossible a precise and adequate evaluation of the damages caused. They recognize equally and without restrictions or reservations that the sums hereinunder mentioned as making the sum of payments are far from large enough to compensate the damage caused. The enemy states engage themselves in consequence to repair the damages caused by them to the limit of the sums hereafter fixed . . . "

A week later, on March 31, the Big Four was asked to interpret the expression "civil populations" in the Lansing note of November 5, 1918, which had been the basis of Germany's demand for an armistice. The Big Four turned the question over to a sub-committee including Norman Davis, John Maynard Keynes, Secretary Robert Lansing and others. And on April 1, symbolic date, this committee turned in a report containing the clause:

"Germany must be constrained to recognize herself financially responsible for all the damage caused to the civil populations of the Allied and Associated Governments, and to their properties, resulting from the aggression of the enemy states on land and sea and from the air . . . " This report also contained the text of a "provisional agreement" between the American and British delegates, which is the first hint of what the famous Article 231 was to be.

It begins: "The Allied and Associated Governments affirm the responsibility of the Enemy States for all the damages suffered by the Allied and Associated Governments and their nationals as a result of the war imposed upon them by the aggression of the enemy states."

A Question of Phraseology

THIS Anglo-American provisional agreement, received April 1, was turned over to the French delegation on April 2 at about midnight; and by April 5 was returned to the Supreme Council, consisting at the time of Wilson, Lloyd George, Clemenceau, Orlando, and including Colonel House, Bernard Baruch, Norman Davis, Thomas Lamont, Lord Sumner, Colonel Hankey, French finance minister Louis Klotz, and later-to-be finance minister Louis Loucheur, the Italian expert Count Crespi, and others.

Klotz and Lloyd George at once said it would be imprudent to suggest that Germany could not pay all the damages. She would be only too ready to jump to the same conclusion. It was agreed that Germany should at least recognize her obligation "in principle." Clemenceau ended the discussion with, "It is only a question of phraseology.

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We can find a way out." The phraseology drawn up at this meeting—but still not the final text of Article 231, though it was getting close—was, "The Allied and Associated Powers demand, and the Enemy Powers agree, that the Enemy States, whatever the cost may be, shall compensate all damages caused . . . by the aggression of the Enemy States on land, sea and from the air . . . "

A Peeved Translator

At 4 o'clock on April 7th, Thomas Lamont, John Maynard Keynes and Louis Loucheur brought a revised version of this opening sentence to the next Supreme Council meeting. It read, "The Allied and Associated Governments affirm, and the Enemy States recognize, that the Enemy States are responsible for causing all the loss and damage . . . in consequence of the war . . . " Changing only a word here and there the Supreme Council sent it to the printer as follows,

PART VII
REPARATION
Section I
General Provisions
Article 231

"The Allied and Associated Governments affirm and Germany accepts the responsibility of Germany and her allies for causing all the loss and damage to which the Allied and Associated Governments and their nationals have been subjected as a consequence of the war imposed upon them by the aggression of Germany and her allies."

That is the real text, bad enough perhaps, but it is a text that not one German in 100,000 has ever seen.

When Brockdorff-Rantzau got that along with the rest of the treaty—in French and English only—he translated it into:

"Die All. und Ass. Regierungen erklären und Deutschland erkennt an, dass Deutschland und seine Verbündeten *als Urheber* für alle Verlüste und Schäden verantwortlich sind . . . "

"Als Urheber" corresponds to nothing in either the French or English text. In that context it means "as primary authors of the war." What doubt might exist on this point is dispelled by a retranslation into English which the Fichte Bund of Hamburg published and sent to America in thousands as anti-treaty propaganda.

The Fichte Bund's translation reads like the official English text except that after the words "Germany and her Allies," it contains the words "as authors of the war," carefully placed between two commas.

"Als Urheber" made all the trouble. It was those two words which aroused the enduring fury of the German population. They are in all popular German editions of the treaty; and nobody finds it expedient to inform the German population that the treaty actually signed at Versailles does not contain them or their equivalent on any of its 428 pages. A correct translation exists of course, but only a few scholars are familiar with it.

The effect of the *"als Urheber"* was what Brockdorff-Rantzau probably expected it would be. The National Assembly at Weimar went into a very explicable fury and its leaders wrote the Peace Conference an indignant note vigorously protesting against the clause which "demands of Germany that she acknowledge herself to be the sole author of the war."

Brockdorff-Rantzau carried the protest to the Big Four and read it to them. Tired by months of wrangling and a good deal of social life, the Big Four missed the finer points of what the German delegate was saying. They realized only that he was protesting against something or other and that he was demanding modifications in the treaty, which would mean negotiations.

Negotiations, the Allies, Clemenceau in particular, were determined to avoid. Clemenceau knew only too well how Talleyrand, Napoleon's Brockdorff-Rantzau at Vienna, facing the "allies" of 1814-1815, when permitted to "negotiate" with Napoleon's victorious enemies had set them fighting among themselves, and had thus saved a great deal out of the wreck for France.

Clemenceau had had trouble enough getting the Allies to agree among themselves. He would not risk having a German delegate making attractive offers to one ally, hinting to another that she was being swindled by her war-time friends, or meeting allied delegates alone in their hotels and tempting them to desert each other. That was why he had built the picket fence around the Germans' hotels at Versailles and why he had kept soldiers on guard.

Ignoring the Weimar protest, if indeed he heard it, Clemenceau, the Allied spokesman, answered curtly that the note "contains no new argument" and that "the moment for discussion has passed." It was a case of "Sign, or we cross the Rhine." Brockdorff refused to sign. He resigned and went back to Berlin.

The Phantom Clause

The Weimar Assembly, unable to face the prospect of an Allied invasion of more of Germany along with the problem of trying to build a republic on the ruins of the Empire, wrote out credentials for the unfortunate Herman Müller and Dr. Bell; and ordered them to Paris as scapegoats.

Almost everybody, whether German or not, took it for granted that the "war-guilt" charge really was in the treaty; and an immense literature about it began to pour out of printing presses all over the world.

Not many people, writers or otherwise, actually read treaties. The air was so thick with war-guilt charges that it was assumed that they were in the treaty. This writer is frank to confess that it was many months before he opened the bulky original copy, one of several hundred issued to newspapermen and other observers, that was given to him

(*Continued on page* 64)

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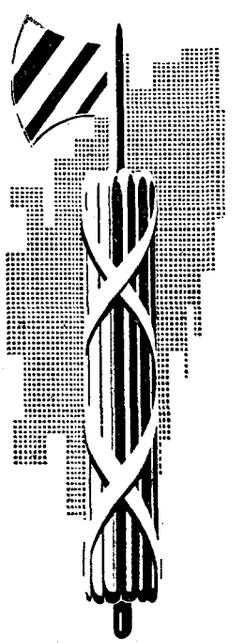
The First World Army

by Cedric Fowler

The First World Army has come, done its work and gone, the fulfilment of the dream for peace through an international police force. Mr. Fowler, in presenting the first report on the organization and operation of this army, examines the precedents established for the maintenance of peace by international armies.

AN INTERNATIONAL ARMY, responsible for maintaining the peace of the world, has been the hope and dream of peace-loving people for generations past. Not only pacifists, but statesmen and public leaders, have urged the creation of a neutral force, armed and authorized to impose tranquillity on quarrelling nations and to prevent nationalistic rivalries from breaking into war. They have advocated a disinterested world police, one whose impartiality could be guaranteed in any dispute it might be called upon to compose or any decision it might be required to enforce; a power that would be, as it were, the secular arm of an international body representing the world's desire for peace. Until this year, when a corps of 3,300 troops recruited from England, Italy, Sweden and Holland kept peace between France and Germany during the Saar Territory Plebiscite, no such body had ever existed. Although since the World War several judicial and arbitral international bodies have been set up, none of them has had any neutral military force at its disposal. The League of Nations has been persistently criticized by peace-lovers for its refusal to recommend military pressure on offending nations. Until the creation of this First World Army—the Saar Force—the League has not exercised real police power for the prevention of international conflict. Now it has done so. The experiment was a success, and within certain limitations, a precedent has been set. The job that the Saar Force was called upon to do was difficult enough. The Saar Territory had been one of Europe's most prominent danger spots. For months before the Plebiscite to decide its permanent status was held, observers and political watchdogs the world over were issuing baleful warnings of imminent war. The Territory is rich in coal deposits, and it borders on the Lorraine iron fields. Great steel and iron works have been erected to utilize them. Germany lost the Territory in 1919 under the slogan of compensation for damage done to French coal mines during the First World War. Fifteen years of compensation were not enough to satisfy French capital for losses, real and imagined, during the great conflict. Supremely chauvinistic Nazism demanded the return of the Territory for two compelling reasons—the need of Germany's war program for all the natural and industrial resources that could be claimed, and the need of Nazi policy, after dangerous rebuffs in Austria and elsewhere, for a victory to restore waning prestige. Between the two opposing elements, overt friction seemed bound to occur. And in its present dainty state,



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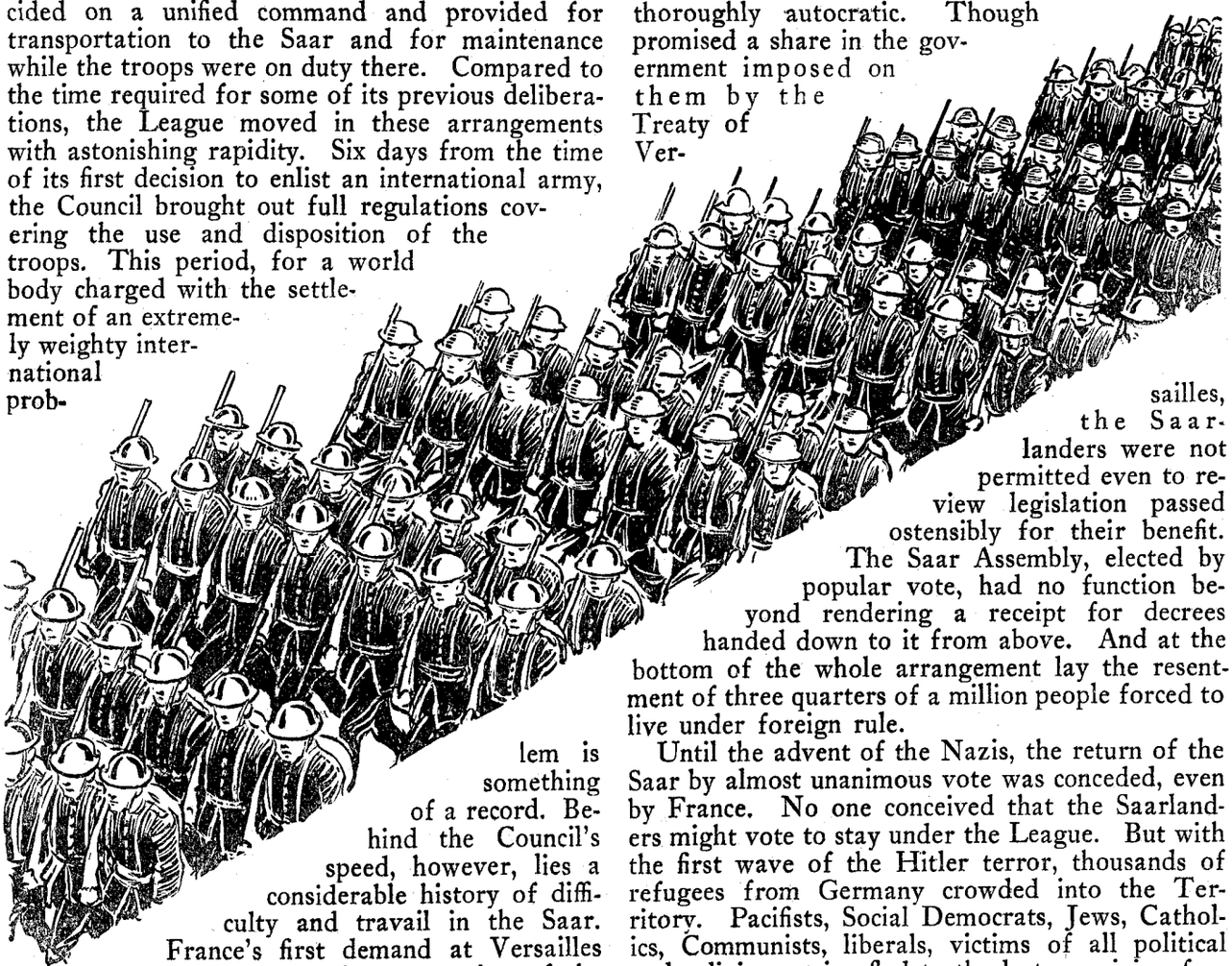
friction is something that the peace of Europe cannot survive.

It was this friction that the Saar Force, tiny compared to the two imperialistic armies it stood between, succeeded in keeping under the surface. The job was done well. Contrary to most expectations, there was no rioting or disturbance at the polls on Plebiscite day. The anticipated Nazi *putsch* did not come off; the Brown Shirts stayed at home. As far as the actual voting went, the Plebiscite was both orderly and honest. There was no ballot-box stuffing such as has happened in plebiscites before. There was no tampering with the counting of the vote. The Saarlanders were protected from last minute intimidation at the polling booths. The returns showed, as clearly as could be hoped, the desires of the voting population of the Saar. Neither France nor Germany could complain.

Credit for Creation

OFFICIAL credit for the creation of this first international army goes to the Council of the League of Nations. The Council issued the call for troops, selected the nations represented in the contingent, fixed the quota to be sent by each, decided on a unified command and provided for transportation to the Saar and for maintenance while the troops were on duty there. Compared to the time required for some of its previous deliberations, the League moved in these arrangements with astonishing rapidity. Six days from the time of its first decision to enlist an international army, the Council brought out full regulations covering the use and disposition of the troops. This period, for a world body charged with the settlement of an extremely weighty international problem is something of a record. Behind the Council's speed, however, lies a considerable history of difficulty and travail in the Saar. France's first demand at Versailles had been for complete possession of the Territory, but she was forced to accept a compromise, whereby it was put under the sovereignty of the League of Nations, with the Plebiscite to come fifteen years later. This gift of a Territory to rule proved a thankless burden to the League. The Saar Governing Commission, set up by the League to act as its deputy, was popular with no one. France attempted to dominate it from the start. Under the first Commission Chairman, a French appointee, the Saar was disciplined as though it were a captured colony, rather than an area under international rule. French coinage was introduced, a special Saar stamp issued, a customs union with France decreed while the previous union with Germany was retained, and French schools set up—with pressure applied to the inhabitants to enroll their children. Finally, French engineers and managers ran the coal mines for the quick maximum profit alone, with little thought either for the future of the mines or for the workers who labored in them.

Naturally these tactics roused the wrath of the Saarlanders. In Germany the result was fury. Finally English indignation, coupled with a conviction for perjury of one of its members, brought a new Commission to the Territory. The new rulers enjoyed only slightly better fortune with their charges. One great fault lay in the constitution of the Commission itself. It was thoroughly autocratic. Though promised a share in the government imposed on them by the Treaty of Versailles, the Saarlanders were not permitted even to review legislation passed ostensibly for their benefit. The Saar Assembly, elected by popular vote, had no function beyond rendering a receipt for decrees handed down to it from above. And at the bottom of the whole arrangement lay the resentment of three quarters of a million people forced to live under foreign rule.



Until the advent of the Nazis, the return of the Saar by almost unanimous vote was conceded, even by France. No one conceived that the Saarlanders might vote to stay under the League. But with the first wave of the Hitler terror, thousands of refugees from Germany crowded into the Territory. Pacifists, Social Democrats, Jews, Catholics, Communists, liberals, victims of all political and religious stripe fled to the last remaining free German soil.

There they immediately began to organize op-

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position to Hitler, raising the slogan of "Status Quo" for the Plebiscite. Social Democrats and Communists, with some Catholics, buried their differences in a United Front against the Führer. They held parades, demonstrated, made speeches, established newspapers and political headquarters —did everything that was expressly forbidden in coördinated Germany.

The Nazis were infuriated, but while at home they knew how to deal with dissidents, they could not build concentration camps on League of Nations ground. They did the next best thing; they organized S. A. contingents in the Saar, putting them under the imitative name of German Front. The German Front copied faithfully the early Nazi tactics in breaking up meetings, raiding opposition offices, kidnapping and murdering opposition workers and generally sabotaging free speech and assembly. United Front sympathizers were threatened with reprisals after the Plebiscite, and a large concentration camp with specially fitted punishment cells was set up just across the border—and its presence widely advertised in the Saar. These tactics, while they obviously prevented freedom of choice in the Plebiscite, did not alarm the League unduly—it has never been much concerned with the fate of Reds. It was not until the German Front began to take over the functions of the Saar Governing Commission that any question was raised on its conduct. The annual report of Geoffrey Knox, Chairman of the Commission, was released in January, 1934, a year before the Plebiscite was to be held. In this report the Chairman gave detailed accounts of Nazi methods in the campaign, and of Nazi penetration in the government of the Territory. An elaborate espionage system was found to have been set up in all the Commission offices—even Mr. Knox's butler was in the pay of the German Front. Intimidation was discovered in open practice. Close connection with the German Front and Nazi leaders at home was established. Finally the report showed that the Saar Police, nominally under command of the Commission, actually were obeying orders from the German Front.

Mr. Knox strongly recommended the enlistment of extra police. The recommendation, while it called only for additions to the existing force, was the first step toward the international army. The progression is interesting. Once granted authority by the League, Mr. Knox tried to enlist the needed men from the Saar itself. The attempt failed. The condition of impartiality—the recruits were required to be men who "should not belong to any group which had already taken up a definite attitude in favor of one or the other of the plebiscite alternatives"—was found impossible to exact. Of five thousand who applied less than three hundred and fifty were found eligible—and the minimum need set by the Commission was for two thousand.

The Commission then altered its request significantly. It asked for authority to recruit an international police force. This idea for a species of Foreign Legion met with little enthusiasm, though the League Council, in September, 1934, sent a circular to all members asking favorable action. Some of the members refused flatly to encourage their nationals to enlist. Switzerland would not permit recruiting on Swiss soil, pointing out that her neutrality forbade it. Belgium responded coldly that she would permit enlistment, but offered no coöperation. England permitted enlistment but ordered that only men who spoke German perfectly should enroll. At the time even this authorization was sharply criticized in Parliament. Mr. Ramsay Macdonald and Sir John Simon were put through a bad quarter hour on the question. Only Mussolini, always glad to project himself into world politics, promised the League Council full assistance.

In the meantime the French were becoming restive. An imminent *putsch* by impatient Brownshirts was rumored. The United Front continued to grow, and by the early autumn political speculators were beginning to wonder if a Status Quo vote were so fantastic after all. In the last Advisory Council elections the Communists had polled thirty-six per cent of the vote. The French began to wonder eagerly if the Territory could be kept away from Germany. They took up the rumors of Nazi invasion, and announced that they would send their own troops in if the League failed to keep order. An army corps assembled on the French side of the Saar border.

Out of These Moves

It was out of all these moves and counter-moves, threats and counter-threats, that the First World Army finally grew. The French threat roused great activity among those who saw the danger to world peace that it implied. It also changed their theme; from demanding an international auxiliary police, they began to favor an international army to keep order in the Saar. Late in November the French, previously adamant on their right to use their own troops, compromised so far as to suggest a neutral auxiliary corps to assist them. On December 3rd they concluded an arrangement with Germany on payment for the mines. Two days later the question of military help in the Plebiscite was brought up in the Council of the League. Chairman Knox's eloquent

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warnings were repeated. Italy was known to be favorable to the idea of an international force of troops, as were other smaller powers.

The doubtful point was England's coöperation. Mr. Macdonald and his Tory ministry had burnt their fingers on the auxiliary police. On the other hand, England was anxious to keep Germany and France from collision. No one was certain what the British delegate's attitude in the Council meeting would be. The suspense was kept high. With histrionic flair the delegate, Captain Eden, waited until the end of a long rambling speech before he revealed the news—England would take part in an international army to keep peace in the Saar.

The Army Emerges

SENSATION; other delegates left the Council room to telephone home for further instructions. They returned to announce that their countries too would be proud to join the sacred trust. In fact, there was quite a rush to be among the charter members of the expedition. Poland volunteered. Lithuania joined quickly. Belgium, the Scandinavian countries, Russia, Italy—all stepped up to offer their services. It had been decided that neither Germany nor France would be asked to join, thus making the affair strictly neutral. France did the proper thing in ordering the withdrawal of her troops from the Saar border; Germany responded with an official call to Nazis to keep their enthusiasm down.

The next few days were filled with almost feverish activity within the League. The decision to send an international force to the Saar was simply the beginning. A great deal of highly important detail work remained to be done. This was the first time that a world army had been organized. The authors and supporters of the experiment were anxious to see it as well prepared as possible.

The first problem was the choice of nations to be included in the army. Obviously not all of those who volunteered could be used, since that would have made the force cumbersome. Since England's approval had made the force possible, she was first on the list. Italy as hearty supporter of the idea came next. Both these powers, it should be recalled, signed the Locarno treaty with France and Germany of mutual guarantee against aggression. However, both had been allies against Germany in the World War. A strictly and historically neutral tone was desired, and accordingly Sweden and Holland were also enrolled. Again because English approval had been necessary, England was given the largest quota of troops—fifteen hundred of the total thirty-three hundred. Italy was asked to send thirteen hundred, and the balance was evenly divided between Sweden and Holland.

Unified command was given to General John Brind, an English officer with experience in suppressing Irish disturbances. To make the force completely international, General Brind was made responsible only to the Saar Governing Commission. While on duty in the Territory, none of the troops would be subject to orders from the home country. For the time, they ceased to represent nationalities; they were a League army.

The troops were to be as far as possible men of the regular forces of the nations contributing. They were to have armored cars, light tanks and all necessary auxiliary equipment — field kitchens, medical service, chaplains and the like. The intention here was to make the force a self-contained unit that would require the least assistance in the Territory. Arrangements for housing and storage of supplies were ordered put under the care of the Commission. No assistance was requested from France. As for Germany, it was understood that the various contingents would avoid crossing German land at any point.

The question of finance at first seemed difficult, but it was solved by a neat compromise. Neither the Saar Commission nor the League of Nations was in a position to pay the whole cost of the force. The international flavor would have been marred if the four nations had paid themselves. England suggested the solution. The four nations would pay the amount that their quotas would have cost at home. The Saar Commission would reimburse them for the costs of transportation, shelter and extra maintenance required while on duty in the Territory. If these costs proved more than the Commission could pay from the Plebiscite fund at its disposal, the Council of the League would ask for contributions from France and Germany.

The League committee in charge of the Saar question outlined the duties the international force would undertake when it arrived. The commander in chief was to proceed with a staff to Saarbrücken at once in order to confer with the Governing Commission. The force itself was to reach the Territory by December 22, in time for the final wind-up of the campaign. Once there the force was to act only as an auxiliary to the existing government; it was not to take over police functions. The Chairman of the Commission was directed to call on the force for aid as needed, and responsibility for maintaining order rested with him. At the same time, the Council of the League issued an appeal to the German Front and to the United Front to observe a pre-Plebiscite truce—with martial law to be applied by the international force as the alternative.

Legal Aspects

REGULATIONS were issued on the legal aspects of the force. Members were to be exempt "from all responsibility for any act accomplished in the performance of their mission." Neither the individual troops nor their governments could be sued. All pensions or compensation for injury or death to any of the troops were to be paid at the highest rate in practice among the four nations sending men. This again marked the international character of the force, since it took over an important function of the individual governments.

Once the force was decided upon and arrangements made, the attitude of the European press underwent a complete change. From skepticism the tone became enthusiastic almost overnight.

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German outbursts against foreign invasion, loud and prolonged when the French threatened to send troops, were silenced by Dr. Goebbels's iron wand. The reversal of opinion was most sudden in England. Even the pro-fascist Rothermere papers came out with favorable editorials, where a few weeks before they were shrilly denouncing "European entanglements." The government was urged on all sides to send the finest troops available—nothing less than a battalion of the Guards Brigade would do. Mussolini carefully selected his quota for height and smartness. Sweden's force, because Parliament was not sitting and troops could not be sent out of the country without its consent, had to be voluntary, but brand new uniforms were bought for it. Each force was given a rousing send-off by the home people. Mussolini treated his men to an hour and a quarter's speech specially composed for the occasion.

The English contingent arrived in the Saar first. The Swedish and the Italians came next, the Dutch last. For the Swedish, it was the first time since the Napoleonic wars that soldiers had gone outside their own borders—an enviable record. France executed a polite gesture in offering free transportation across her territory. General Brind's headquarters were set up in a Saarbrücken villa, where all incoming troops were required to report.

First Parade

FOUR days before Christmas the League army held its first parade in Saarbrücken. To give point to the truce on campaign activities, armored cars and tanks were included. Thousands of Saarlanders watched them file through the streets. It was easy to see that the First World Army meant business. German Front members with thoughts of last minute violence laid them aside. The knowledge that other units of the international force were distributed throughout the towns and villages of the Territory was a further help in persuading them to keep the peace.

The picture presented by the presence of alien troops on German soil was not, however, entirely grim. Saarlanders are like people everywhere—they enjoy a good military show. Within a very few days of the force's first arrival, this very human taste got the better of hostility. Saarlanders found themselves watching the parades with appreciation. Changing the guard at Saarbrücken headquarters proved particularly intriguing. Since Europe's smartest troops were represented on the force, the sight was well worth any army fancier's while. One mystery remained unsolved, though the performance was closely watched scores of times. This was the password question—just what did the English lieutenant, for example, say to the Italian, or Swedish, or Dutch officer whose force he was relieving? Surely they were not all expert linguists, with four tongues at their command. Our guess would be that one of those international Continental words was used—like "cocktail" or "sport," "bar" or the like. Whatever the language they spoke, only the softest of words were used on all sides.

The Army in Action

AS a matter of fact, the correspondents had a hard time finding exciting news matter in the last two or three weeks of the Plebiscite campaign. The international force kept the peace all too well for the purposes of exciting cablegrams. Last minute propaganda was almost wholly suppressed, at least in its less gentle aspects. Chairman Knox's order banning the display of Nazi flags was enforced. German Front flying squads were kept firmly grounded. Open terrorism ceased. For the first time in several months, Saarlanders enjoyed peace. When voting day came, the international force was mobilized to guard all polling booths. The ballot boxes, once full, were shepherded by tanks and armored cars to the central counting place. The Saarbrücken city hall, where the count was made, was guarded by the troops in full fighting order. No irregularities occurred. The count was full and accurate. And the entire proceeding passed off without incident. Though it was the center of an international problem of the utmost significance to world peace, the Plebiscite was conducted more quietly and more honestly than most American municipal elections.

This happy result undoubtedly figures as at least a minor triumph of world organization. The League of Nations, which has been through so many distressing experiences lately, has received a heartening addition of prestige. Europe, relieved to find a dangerous situation smoothed, was quick to echo with praise. Outside Germany, the European attitude to the first world army was one of complete satisfaction. The general tone seemed to be: why didn't we think of this before?

The answer here is simply this: a situation exactly parallel to the Saar Plebiscite had not arisen before. Everyone knew that the Saarlanders would vote German. The nations represented on the international force had no direct interest in influencing the outcome either way. Previous post-war votes had been different. Then the Allies, excited with victory, had been pleased to use pressure against Germany—as in the Upper Silesia Plebiscite. This time all signs indicated that a fair and accurate vote was desirable. Everyone in Europe wanted peace—if only because no one felt sufficiently prepared for war. The success of the Saar force has shown one way to help in its preservation. A precedent for international neutral action to prevent war has been set. The enthusiasm of European opinion shows the nations welcoming its establishment. The welcome, of course, was not entirely disinterested—the countries concerned might some day have need of such a force in a problem of their own—but at least they have recognized a new way to smooth an international crisis. The first experiment has been a success. The precedent may grow.

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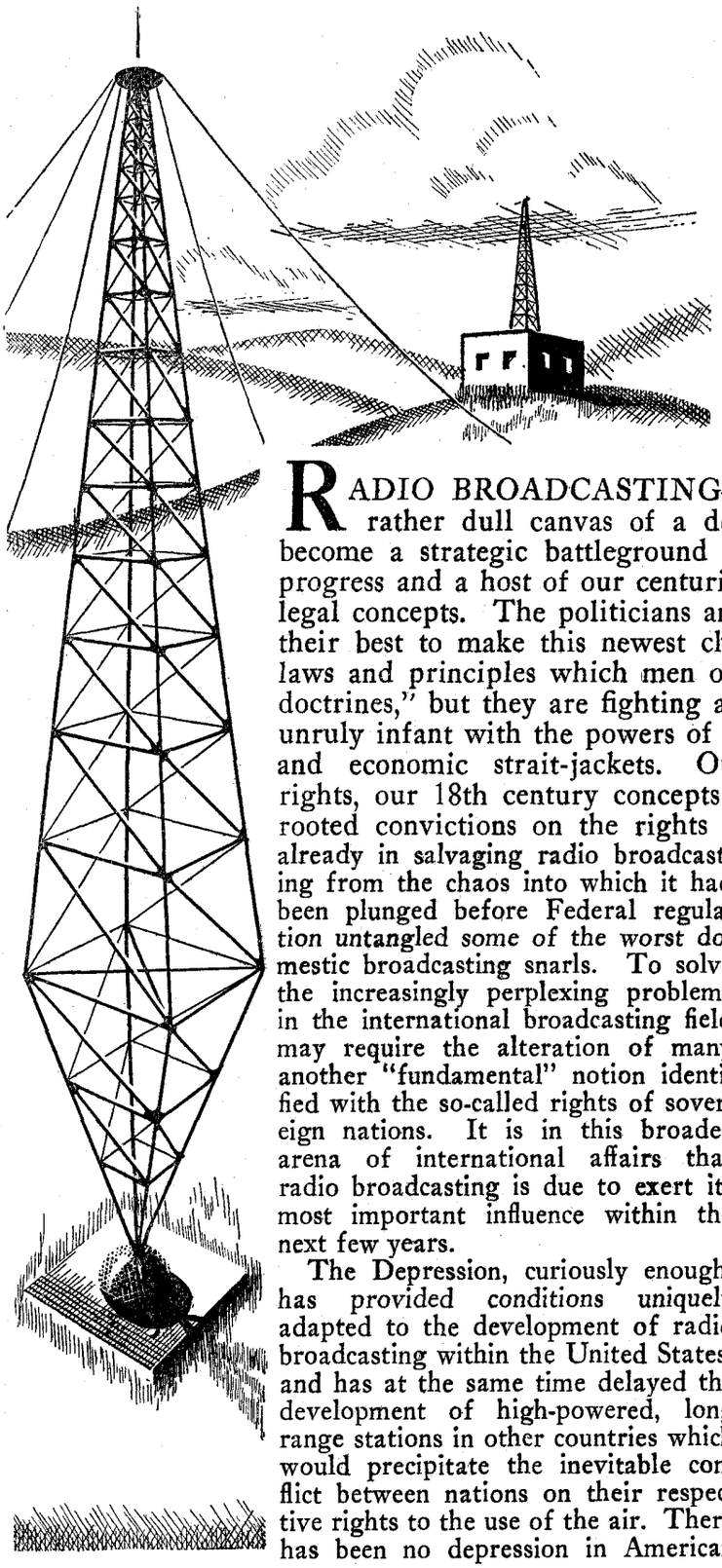
Battle of the Wave Lengths



by William E. Berchtold

The ship and the airplane have been tamed by international law, but radio waves, recognizing no man-made boundaries, emerge as a new cause for world conflict.

RADIO BROADCASTING—one of the few bright spots on the rather dull canvas of a depression-ridden world—threatens to become a strategic battleground for sharp conflict between scientific progress and a host of our centuries-old political, economic, cultural and legal concepts. The politicians and economists and lawyers have done their best to make this newest child of science conform to rules and laws and principles which men of other centuries called "fundamental doctrines," but they are fighting a losing battle. Radio has proved an unruly infant with the powers of a Houdini for slipping out of political and economic strait-jackets. Our American colonial notion of states' rights, our 18th century concepts of free speech and even our most deep-rooted convictions on the rights of private property have been altered already in salvaging radio broadcasting from the chaos into which it had been plunged before Federal regulation untangled some of the worst domestic broadcasting snarls. To solve the increasingly perplexing problems in the international broadcasting field may require the alteration of many another "fundamental" notion identified with the so-called rights of sovereign nations. It is in this broader arena of international affairs that radio broadcasting is due to exert its most important influence within the next few years.

The Depression, curiously enough, has provided conditions uniquely adapted to the development of radio broadcasting within the United States, and has at the same time delayed the development of high-powered, long range stations in other countries which would precipitate the inevitable conflict between nations on their respective rights to the use of the air. There has been no depression in American radio broadcasting; technical progress has been steady, commercial revenues have grown each year and any potential plans of over-zealous bankers to expand the industry on a boom-time speculation basis have been nipped in the bud by the laggard attitude of the depression markets. Advertisers with restricted budgets have turned to this new medium for broadcasting their message with greater alacrity than might have been the case in boom times, when advertising dollars are not so closely watched. The income of the NBC and CBS networks from the sale of time on the air to advertisers alone has risen from $3,832,500 in 1927 to $42,888,730 in 1934. Radio broadcasting has not developed at this pace in other parts of the world, where few nations have had the desire or the money to expand their facilities. The delay in construction of high-powered stations outside the United States during the depression years has provided

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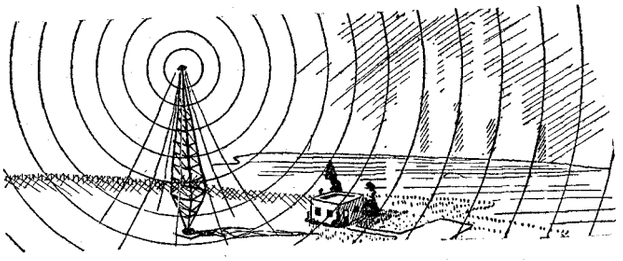
a welcome respite to American engineers who have been able to devote all of their time to our most pressing domestic technical problems.

But the day of international conflict between nations seeking their rights to the use of the air for broadcasting is not far away and the engineers' only hope lies in the possibility that some new technological development, not already on the scientific horizon, will make the task easier. None is so sanguine, however, as to believe that the old notions of political, cultural and economic isolation can be preserved for those nations which insist upon their rights to self-contained nationalism. Radio waves recognize no man-made boundaries, and therein lies the basis for conflict.



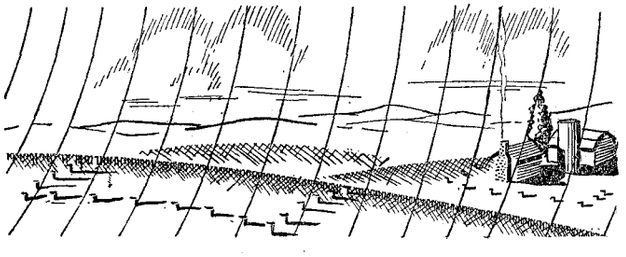
It is a curious commentary on world political philosophy that nations should be undergoing a revival of intense nationalism at a time when new technological developments—particularly the airplane and the radio—are tearing down the old national barriers. It may be possible to harness the airplane, and consequently vitiate its effectiveness for a decade or even a century, in the interests of preserving the old doctrines of the rights of sovereign nations, but it is doubtful that radio can be so strait-jacketed even by international agreement. Nations already have denied the right of passage over their territory to the aircraft of another nation, but none has been able to keep radio waves from penetrating its borders. The most that a complaining nation can do is to protest to its erring neighbor, which leads inevitably to strict international agreements to insure even a fair measure of freedom for any one of the nations seeking to use the air for broadcasting.

Increasing Power Begins the Battle

THE electrical energy radiated over Europe from the broadcasting stations of more than a score of nations crowded into a relatively small area has mounted each year. The total energy did not exceed 80 kilowatts in 1925; it had risen to 4,250 kilowatts, exclusive of short wave transmission, on April 1, 1934; and is nearer to 5,250 kilowatts at the present time. These figures take into consideration the new 500 kilowatt station at Moscow, the center of a gigantic Soviet broadcasting development, and several 100 kilowatt stations west of the Urals. The technical problems raised have become increasingly acute. Engineers are experimenting with directional aerials to enable the effective field to coincide more closely with the area served, and new transmission systems are being developed to permit a wider separation in frequencies between neighboring nations.

The only hope for a solution of the contentious international situation which has arisen as a result of the interference between neighboring channels in the European setup lies in the technical laboratory.

THE assignment of wave bands for broadcasting is in the hands of the International Telecommunications Conference, an organization composed of the national postal and telegraph administrations which meets every five years. Meeting in Washington in 1927 and at Madrid in 1932, these conferences set up certain technical standards for all nations to follow, designated a portion of the radio spectrum for broadcasting purposes and authorized the several nations to use it. These conferences left untouched the assignment of wave-lengths to individual nations. Because there was no collaboration on the assignment of wave-lengths, unbearable interference brought European broadcasters together at London in 1925 to consider a "gentleman's agreement." The result was the formation of the Union Internationale de Radiodiffusion, commonly known as the UIR, with headquarters at Geneva, Switzerland. Its membership includes all of the principal broadcasting organizations of Europe and it works closely with the major broadcasting chains in the United States, Japan and other non-European countries. The UIR for ten years has built up a fine record of service in keeping the problems of mutual interference to a minimum. Its chief task has been to make certain that a wave-length issued in one country is sufficiently separated from a wave-length issued in another to avoid interference. The European problem of interference is made more acute by the mistake of engineers who separated each channel by only nine kilocycles or less, as contrasted with the American practice of ten kilocycles to each channel. The result has been more interference between channels, which becomes even more serious with the use in Europe of long waves outside the American broadcast band. There is no restriction as to power on some of the very long wave-lengths used in Europe, and it is the



use of these unrestricted wave-lengths for the broadcasting of propaganda into the homes of neighboring nations which has brought some of the sharpest clashes between the governments.

Austria filed an official protest against the activities of the German National Socialist, Theodor Habicht, who attacked the late Chancellor Dollfuss and promoted the illegal National Socialist movement in Austria through radio broadcasts from Munich. The Austrian government realized that before it could obtain a decision on its pending protest it faced the prospect of a revolution at home

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promoted by the very broadcasts which it sought to stop through official channels. The Munich broadcasts, in fact, are credited with hastening the *putsch* which brought death to Chancellor Dollfuss himself. The Austrian government, seeking a practical solution to a problem which it realized might take years to solve through the red tape of international protest, initiated its own system of interference signals. It enlisted the aid of amateur radio operators throughout Austria who organized the so-called "Interference Brigade." At a signal from Vienna the amateurs projected interference on the wave-length used by Munich, thereby cutting down the effectiveness of the Nazi broadcasts. Quite obviously, the extension of such a practice between nations will result in chaos far worse than that faced by the early broadcasters, who recognized the necessity for mutual agreement if anyone was to make use of the air channels.

Interference Brigade in Action

THE tactics of the Austrian "Interference Brigade" have been used by other European governments seeking to shut out the radio blasts from the Soviet station Comintern (Communist International) at Moscow. The propaganda broadcasts from the high-powered Russian station not only included disparaging remarks about world-famous personalities and the heads of neighboring governments, but urged the people of all nations outside the Soviet Union to rise against their oppressors. Official protests apparently had little effect upon the policies of the Soviet government in the operation of its broadcasting station, but the interference signals which prevented the clear reception of the Russian broadcasts brought a changed policy for Comintern in 1934. Now the Soviet station sugar-coats its propaganda messages and makes no pleas for violent revolutionary tactics, depending upon educational programs picturing progress in the Soviet Union to deliver its story to neighboring nations and to show them the error of their ways under capitalistic regimes. The interference tactics have been dropped since the Moscow station changed its policy, and the new broadcasts are heard over most of the European continent.

The radio has provided no end of headaches for government officials of the many South American countries which have been involved in revolutions or wars during the last few years. With every Latin American country except Mexico walled by an open or secret censorship of the press and the radio at the present time, it is easy enough for the governments to control the stations within their own borders, but there is no way to shut out the partisan blasts of powerful stations in neighboring countries. In the first battle of the Leticia, for instance, the strict censorship in Peru kept Peruvians from learning of the battle until Colombian radio stations went on the air with reports colored from their own particular nationalistic viewpoint. Since the tactics of the Austrian "Interference Brigade" have not yet been used in South America, the governments have sought to counteract the effects of such demoralizing radio broadcasts by using their government-controlled stations at home to furnish nationals with reassuring announcements of the "truth." The "truth" about atrocities, casualties and victories is purely a matter for manufacture on the typewriters of war propagandists on both sides of the lines. If the official communiqués of the nations at war in the Chaco are to be given credence, the total casualties have already surpassed the total population, male and female, of both countries!

Objectives of the Battle

FRANCE, Germany, Austria and Italy have used their government-controlled stations for several years in a round of intensive attacks and counter-attacks upon the League of Nations, Fascism and Nazism for the benefit of neighbors in the Saar, Switzerland, Czecho-Slovakia, Danzig, Poland and the Balkans. Although large sections of the populations of most European countries understand more than one language and are capable of understanding the broadcasts from neighboring states in a foreign tongue, the propagandists make certain that their message reaches its desired audience by broadcasting in two and sometimes three or four languages. The increasing use of short waves for propaganda broadcasts to the ends of the Earth has heightened the seriousness of the problem, and incidentally brought about a chaotic state of interference on the short wave channels. The Madrid Conference of 1932 sought the adoption of a rule limiting each nation to broadcasts solely in its own native language, but the representatives present were in no mood to accept such a restriction.

That no nation can be the sole master of the commercial or cultural standards of the broadcasts which fill the air above its territory is made clear by the recent experiences of the British Broadcasting Corporation in the face of competition from Radio Luxembourg, Radio Athlone, Radio Normandie and other stations outside of England, which now direct their broadcasts across the English Channel especially for the British listening audience. The British Broadcasting Corporation enjoys a monopoly on the right to broadcast in Great Britain, a practice followed by the governments of all Old World countries except Belgium, France, the Netherlands, Spain and Sweden. The British have insisted upon a policy of non-commercial broadcasting, excluding advertisers from the air and obtaining their income from a tax on receiving sets of 10 shillings ($2.50) per year. They point with pride to their fine broadcasts of concerts and lectures without taint of the commercial "blurbs" currently heard on American stations.

The B.B.C. Monopoly

THE B.B.C. monopoly, however, has not been without its critics, and those critics are many British listeners who complain that their programs are damned by the monotony of too many speeches and lectures, too many concerts of classical music,

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and unbearably dull Sunday programs. The B.B.C. has managed to remain aloof from these criticisms, assuming the attitude that it knows best what is good for the British audience. With no incentive for competition such as exists on the commercially sponsored chain programs in the United States, the B.B.C. programs have, unfortunately, become increasingly anaemic.

The Air Attack on England

It is only natural then that British officials are viewing with alarm the growth of stations in Luxembourg, the Irish Free State and France which send out advertising-sponsored programs to England. These stations have sought the weakest spots in the B.B.C. schedule, particularly the deadly Sunday programs, and have given the British audience commercially sponsored programs of sprightly dance music and light entertainment. Although the programs are quite mediocre compared with American commercial broadcasts, they are, nevertheless, taking large sections of the British listening audience away from the B.B.C. Some British observers are predicting that a renewal of B.B.C.'s monopoly contract, which will be up for consideration soon, may include provisions for the heretical practice of allowing at least some advertising on the air. Whether the British would consider a breaking of the B.B.C. monopoly in favor of free competition between several companies is doubtful. It is quite clear, however, that no nation can expect to be the sole dictator of what its nationals shall hear or protect its non-commercial monopoly policy from the competition of commercially sponsored broadcasts. The listener must be the final judge, and if he prefers dance music interspersed with advertising "blurbs" to a non-commercial lecture or concert, who is to deny him the right to his free choice?

Controlled by France through the news agency, Havas, Radio Luxembourg is one of the few stations in Europe which is completely outside the UIR agreement for the allocation of wave-lengths and power. It is a "pirate" station, which presents the anomalous situation of a nation signatory to the UIR "gentleman's agreement" deliberately setting up a station outside its own borders and operating it against the wishes of other signatories to the agreement. It establishes a precedent which may result in the setting up of other high-powered "pirate" stations by signatories to the UIR agreement. If France can sponsor such a "pirate" station with her left hand and still remain a member of the UIR, other nations which may seek high-powered commercial outlets with the passing of the Depression will be apt to follow her example. The resulting chaos must dictate a return to some form of mutual agreement, although many a moth-eaten notion of a nation's sovereign rights may be sacrificed in the compromise. The battle of the wave-lengths must inevitably result in the discarding of outworn political and economic doctrines which have their roots in nationalism, or—as an alternative—lead the nations one step further toward international conflict and real war.

The United States, being the first in the field of radio broadcasting, has proceeded to develop its elaborate domestic services without many protests from neighboring countries on the North American continent. The lack of conflict with our neighbors over the matter of wave-lengths has been due chiefly to the late entry of Canada, Mexico and other countries on the continent into large scale broadcasting. The Depression has done a great deal to forestall this impending necessity of a North American agreement along the lines of that functioning in Europe for the last ten years. An attempt to reach such an agreement was made at Mexico City in the summer of 1933, but no constructive basis for a settlement of the problem could be agreed upon. Mexico submitted substantion demands for the assignment to it of clear channels which already were being used by American broadcasting stations.

The Canadian problem was met temporarily through an exchange of notes between the United States and Canada dated May 5, 1932, outlining Canada's broadcasting needs. Canada has been assigned six wave-lengths exclusively, two other channels which are almost exclusive and nine regional and two local channels which are shared with the United States. Mexico and the other countries to the South of the United States are using channels already appropriated by the United States for our own use, with some resulting interference. This interference is bound to become more serious when these Latin American countries, freed from the economic limitations of the Depression, decide to build stations of greater power and range. The most serious interference now comes from several high-powered stations near the northern Mexican border, which are countenanced by the Mexican government chiefly as an irritant to force the United States into an agreement to give up some of its channels for Mexico's exclusive use. The stations were built chiefly by American capital and their broadcasts are directed to listeners in the United States; their programs advertise lotteries and patent medicines which have been barred from sponsoring broadcasts in the United States by rulings of the Federal Radio Commission.

If the War Comes Here

One of the most notorious of these American "radio exiles" is Dr. J. R. Brinkley of Milford, Kans., who moved his broadcasting activities to Mexico when the Federal Radio Commission refused to renew his license for Station KFKB on the grounds that it was not being operated in the public interest. Mexican broadcasters have watched closely the efforts of certain self-interested groups in the United States who are attempting to obtain Congressional legislation to bar all advertising from American broadcasts and substitute a system similar to that now used in England. Such a reversal of the American policy of broadcasting would more than likely give Canada, where advertising broadcasts are permitted under government control, and

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Mexico, where advertising broadcasts are permitted without restriction, a large share of the $42,000,000 now being spent in the United States for "time" on the networks of the two major chains. With such a large annual income to build upon, both Canada and Mexico could justify demands for sufficiently clear channels virtually to blanket the United States. This is only another projection of the utter futility of attempts to strait-jacket radio broadcasting through national legislation. Broadcasting is necessarily an international problem, and it must be handled on that basis.

Opening U. S. Skirmish

THE most recent conflict between the United States and a neighboring country has arisen as a result of the protest of the Canadian government against the interference of the Crosley Station WLW at Cincinnati with Station CFRB at Toronto. The Federal Communications Commission (which absorbed the functions of the Federal Radio Commission last year) authorized WLW, "the Nation's Station," to operate experimentally on 700 kilocycles with 500 kilowatts power, an increase in power from 50 kilowatts. The change necessitated the investment of $500,000 by the Crosley Radio Corporation in the building of its new high-powered transmitter, the largest in the western hemisphere and rivaled only by the new Moscow broadcasting center. The Crosley station's frequency of 700 kilocycles is adjacent to a Canadian exclusive channel of 690 kilocycles.

When the WLW transmitter was put into operation with a hundred-fold increase in power it produced a strong signal in Canada and caused neighboring channel interference with the Toronto station. The protest of the Dominion Government, forwarded by the State Department to the Federal Communications Commission, resulted in an order from the Commission instructing WLW to reduce its power from 500 kilowatts to its previous output of 50 kilowatts. With a half million dollar investment at stake, the Crosley station requested a hearing on the Commission's order and indicated that it did not intend to give up its position without a fight. Engineers hoped that the problem might be solved with the use of directional antennae which might reduce or eliminate the interference with the Toronto station. Through its protest against the American station, the Canadian government has set a precedent which may react to its own disadvantage when it may decide in the future to put more power on the channels which it has been assigned to use exclusively.

Battle in the Courts

THERE are no stations of great power in Canada at the present time, and much of the Dominion is obtaining its broadcasting service from stations in the United States. In fact, WLW now serves sections of Canada with its new high-powered transmitter which are not served by stations now being operated in Canada. To insure its operation on even reduced power of 50 kilowatts for another six months, the Crosley station applied for and obtained a renewal of its regular license from the Commission. To further strengthen its position for a possible battle in the courts, WLW has formally applied for a modification of its regular license to increase the power specified from 50 kilowatts to 500 kilowatts. It is not likely that the Commission will grant this application since it has already indicated its intention to rescind the experimental license for 500 kilowatts unless some technical means for preventing interference with the Canadian station is worked out.

Regardless of the outcome of this particular incident of conflict, the American broadcasting industry has been served with another striking example of the extraordinarily tenuous grounds upon which its fifty million dollar investment in broadcasting facilities has been erected. The Radio Act of 1927, upon which much of the present broadcasting structure has been built, provided as one of its fundamental principles that licensees obtained no vested rights in the use of the ether waves, and that all grants were to be conditioned on a waiver of any claims of proprietorship. Thus one of our oldest notions of the rights of private property was altered to meet the demands of radio. The Commission is empowered to grant licenses for periods up to three years, but thus far has seen fit to keep the entire broadcasting industry on the extremely slender basis of a renewal of its life for only six months at a time. Even these six-month grants are an improvement over the earlier practice of issuing licenses for three months' duration. Any licensee may be called upon by the Commission at any time during the six months to show cause why the grant should not be rescinded and the award made to another applicant for the wave-length who has appeared before the Commission.

Radio and the New Deal

THUS licensees spend more than $1,000,000 a year in legal battles to retain the all too tenuous grants which they have been given for six months of broadcasting life. Officials of stations which have been assigned the much-sought-after clear channels face a commuter's life of travel between their home cities and Washington to assure the Commission that their retention of the short licenses will be to the best interest of the public. No industry has been built upon such slender property rights as broadcasting. If Congress should suddenly approve legislation turning over all wave-lengths to the Federal government for direct ownership and operation of broadcasting, the private interests which have invested $50,000,000 in facilities would face the necessity of selling their equipment at junk prices without any hope of obtaining redress in the courts for the resulting loss of property without due process of law.

It is this fact which places radio in the unenviable position of being the most logical guinea-pig for a socially minded administration to claim as the starting point in any national program for wresting in-

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dustry from private hands. The aviation industry, which some observers believed was marked by the Roosevelt Administration for such an experiment last year until the Army air mail fiasco put an end to the plan, would be in a position to obtain some redress for its loss of property through the United States Court of Claims. But the broadcasting industry virtually waives its Constitutional rights to any vested interest in the property it controls by accepting licenses from the Federal Communications Commission upon the condition that it waives all claims of proprietorship to the channels assigned. Deprived of these channels, its costly property is only so much metal which can be sold only at junk prices. Thus radio, in order to protect the public interest as opposed to the rights of individuals, has forced a change in our fundamental notion of the rights to private property. Similarly, it has mocked the old doctrines of states' rights, forced a consideration of a new concept of the freedom of speech and make a joke of any approach toward the equality of the individual.

Early Regulation

It was on this latter score that the first attempts to give the broadcasting industry a measure of self-regulation, bound only by the provisions of the Radio Act of 1912, broke down and sent the industry headlong into a chaotic state. Radio broadcasting was not an invention, but the creation of a service; and it was only natural that the first application for a broadcasting license (awarded to KDKA at Pittsburgh in 1920) should be made under the provisions of the Act of 1912, which foresaw the use of radio only for point-to-point communication. Several hundred stations were in operation by 1923 when the Circuit Court of Appeals of the District of Columbia ruled that while the Secretary of Commerce had no right to refuse an applicant under the Act of 1912, he had power to *exercise his discretion* in the assignment of particular wave-lengths which each station might use.

Secretary Hoover called the First National Conference on Radio in 1923 and the broadcast band was designated from 550 kilocycles to 1500 kilocycles. Mr. Hoover sought to permit the new industry to develop its own means of self-regulation, and more than 500 stations were in operation in 1926 before a new court decision plunged the industry into chaos. A Chicago station "jumped" its assigned frequency in that year, and the Court ruled that under the Act of 1912 the station was clearly within its rights. Stations throughout the country, therefore, used what frequencies they desired and pandemonium resulted. Congress finally passed the Radio Act of 1927, which provided for the establishment of a Federal Radio Commission and clearly placed the collective public interest above the individual's right to equality in the assignment of wave-lengths.

The closest approach to an attempt to harness the old notions of states' rights upon radio broadcasting came in the form of the Davis Amendment to the Radio Act of 1927. Proposed by a hill-billy Congressman from the backwoods of Tennessee and passed by a Congress still imbued with the fundamental doctrines of states' rights and none too well informed about radio, the Davis Amendment provided that all sections of the country be insured equality in the allocation of radio stations. Neither Congressman Davis nor the approving Congress recognized that broadcasting is a service and cannot be appraised in terms of the number of stations in a particular locality. The quality of the service depends upon the size and power of the station, the availability of talent and the basic commercial support which can be expected from advertising revenues; it cannot be appraised in terms of the physical location of the stations. It is not necessary that a station be in the same state —*or in the same nation*—to provide an adequate service for the listening audience. It is logical that the biggest stations, with the largest advertising revenues, and the best talent to draw from, should naturally center around the major metropolitan areas. But this line of thought had no place in the execution of the Davis Amendment provisions for equality of stations in each region, and the Federal Radio Commission issued its now famous General Order No. 40 in 1928 to reallocate stations accordingly. Local stations were limited to 100 watts or less. Regional stations were designated for not less than 250 watts nor more than 1,000 watts at night and 2,500 watts during the day. Clear channel stations were granted the use of high power on frequencies cleared from interference at night. Numerous attacks have been made on the Commission's order carrying into effect the intent of the Davis Amendment, but it has been upheld in the courts. The new Federal Communications Commission has finally recommended to Congress that it be repealed. If action is taken this session as the Commission recommends, the last relic of states' or regional rights will have been cast aside so far as radio is concerned.

Opponents of the "Status Quo"

The radio broadcasting industry is constantly faced with the task of counteracting the pressure brought upon Congress and upon the Federal Communications Commission by religious, educational, or industrial groups, such as the newspaper publishers, who would benefit by a change in the present system of broadcasting, or who seek to keep the industry from invading fields in which they already have a substantial investment. Radio broadcasting is the first new instrument of mass communication since the invention of the printing press which quite obviously cannot be shared equally by all publishers who would harness it to their uses. The telegraph, telephone and even point-to-point radio each lent itself to quick adaptation to the uses of the newspaper press. But the portion of the radio spectrum assigned to broadcasting is so limited that not more than 100 newspapers out of the 2,000 or more published daily in the United States could obtain adequate broad-

(*Continued on page* 56)

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Schemes: Just Schemes

by George E. Sokolsky

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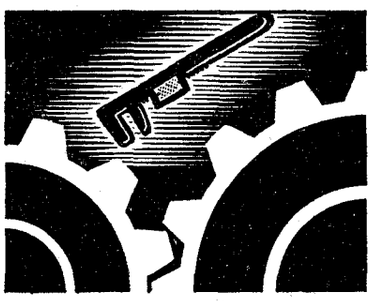
Mr. Sokolsky presents the latest of his NEW OUTLOOK road reports on the current temper of the people and the spread westward of the Washington mania for schemes: just schemes.



I AM traveling this year over a wide region, talking to a broad variety of people—college students, proletarian forums, rotarian executives, women's clubs and all classes of Americans who are concerned with the state of the nation.

Last year, I was also traveling over much the same route, talking and listening to the same kinds of people. Last year, they wanted action, any kind of action, speedy, swift, tangible, visible action. That and little else.

This year, I do not see the same lust for action. Instead, I gather three impressions:

1. The average American wants to be let alone. He is tired of being analyzed and studied and codified and categorized. He wants to be let alone.

2. Labor wants to work and to make money. It does not want to be unionized, organized, led and bargained over. Labor wants work and money.

3. Liberals of every shade and description have gained what the psychoanalysts call an *outlet.* They are getting rid of inhibited ideas and theories. Some of them are sincere and honest men and women who are suffering in their own personalities for all of mankind; others are "nuts," men frankly with one idea, one sure panacea; still others are exhibitionists. Whatever else they are, they confuse ordinary people who want to be let alone.

When I say that the average American wants to be let alone, I mean that the enthusiasm for marching in a nation-wide recovery parade is waning. On all sides, I heard the same idea, differently expressed, of course, but it is always really the same. It is: "I could make some money this year, if I could manage my business in my own way. I don't want to go back to the good old days, exactly. I am willing to help the President bring about recovery, but all this reform stuff is hampering me. I never know what I can do and what is verboten. I'm up in the air."

I was talking to an audience of average business men in Worcester, Mass. I must say that although none of these men were in the millionaire class, they were trying to keep their industries going and some of them were above the average intelligence. One man, in particular, made this point:

"A business is an intimate thing. It is almost like a family relationship. A business man must understand not only the general conditions governing his industry, but some very particular things. For instance, he must know all about his customers. To some, he can extend special credits; others must be held down tightly. He must know his executives, his competitors, his workmen. When a man watches his business personally and closely, he has a chance even in times of depression. But when a business is run by lawyers or bankers or the government, it can only do well in fair weather. When trouble comes, the bosses don't know what it's all about.

"This is particularly true when the government

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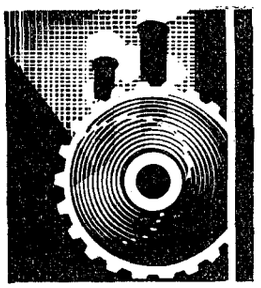
tries to operate and control business and industry. Somebody comes along and tells me what I have to do and all my experience tells me that what he says will ruin my business. When I disagree with him, he threatens to sue me. So I shut up shop. That's what's happening to the New England textile mills. If the government won't let them alone, they'll all close down."

I heard the same general line of argument in Detroit among automobile manufacturers. They all point to the example of Henry Ford, who resisted supervision and control and did well. An executive of the Ford company told me that when Mr. Ford refused to sign the code and to accept the Blue Eagle they received, at first, unfavorable and even threatening letters from all sorts of people. Then the tide turned and the character of the correspondence changed. But most correspondents praised Mr. Ford for resisting interference.



In Chicago, an executive of a company which manufactures a commodity used in public works said to me:

"If they would let me alone, I think I could do fairly well with this business but I daren't poke my chin out because the government is now my best customer. If I point out to these young men that I know how to reduce prices so that more people could use my commodity, they would tell me that I am unscientific and don't read enough statistics. I should find that some bureau of the government would favor my competitor because he is uncritical. So I am uncritical. But I am also sore, because as it is, I operate at a loss, but if they gave me a chance to work out my own ideas, I think I could operate at a small profit."

Overdone Benefits

When these people say they want to be let alone, they do not, they seem never, to mean that they would like to go back to the sweat-shop and child labor and unfair trade practices. They praise the N.R.A. and the codes for putting an end to abuses that have appeared in American industry. But they say that if they can retain the benefits of the codes and reject the impediments to recovery which arise more from bureaucratic methods of enforcement than from the code, themselves, they could help the President accomplish his purpose, which is to get goods moving. They want to help, but find that they are resisted because they are experienced. As most American businesses were built up by the men who manage them, these men ask why their knowledge and experience should be so obnoxious to the government.

I was talking to a comparatively small manufacturer of leather goods novelties. He said that his was wholly a luxury business. Nobody had to buy his particular line of goods. They could survive without the items his factory produced—valises, wallets, tobacco pouches, pocketbooks and such. He employed about fifty men in a small town in which there were three small industries which kept the town going. The stunt in this industry is to get the price down so that the articles are cheap enough to be attractive. If a ladies' pocketbook sold for about $5.00 in 1929, the same article ought to sell now for $1.95 or $1.84 or even less. There must be style and appearance of finish, and American women won't buy rubbish altogether. They want what they believe is value. Therefore, the manufacturer must chisel somewhere. He can give his men work if they coöperate with him in chiseling.

So they all get together and they work out a commodity that will sell in a department store. Then along comes a labor leader or a compliance board inspector and kicks all their plans out of the window. This man told me he could keep quite a business going if they would let him alone. He had a way—but it involved a measure of chiseling. His men were willing to chisel along with him. But outsiders kicked up a row, sometimes at the instigation of a competitor who is not so smart.

Views of Labor

In a word, here is a country which has a tradition of individualism. Here is a people who have made their way by each man working out his own salvation. Then the Depression frightened these people and they were willing to accept anything: control, codes, Blue Eagles, anything, to get away from the gloom. They wanted action.

Now, after two years of action, they are weary of the devices which they themselves, in part, created to achieve recovery by a form of socialized effort. They are weary of a bureaucracy which they themselves helped to establish. Wherever one goes, the same response is made to questions about present conditions: "Let us alone and we'll go ahead." The American workingman thinks and talks the same language as the American boss and the American shopkeeper. He does not regard himself as a submerged class struggling against eternal economic brutality. It is true that in some cities, New York, Boston, Chicago, a proletariat forms in hard times, but by and large the American worker has a capitalistic outlook on life. He works to make money. He wants money so that he can improve not only his economic but his social status. He looks forward to becoming an executive or a boss. That explains why it is so difficult to organize him into a class-conscious labor union. He is not class-conscious; he is only conscious of the welfare of himself and his family. He is willing to be unionized if that will bring him more money. If he can make more standing alone, he prefers to stand alone. I investi-

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gated the labor situation in Detroit, for instance. There a board headed by Professor Leo Wolman is holding an election to arrange for collective bargaining. Three types of unionism are struggling for power—the company unions, the American Federation of Labor and a Communist union. The workers, in their voting for representatives, indicate the normal independence of the average American. They vote for men rather than organizations. They vote independently of any national organization. They emphasize the same individualistic characteristics which I noted in the business men.

I went up to Sheboygan, Wis., shortly after the Kohler strike to see what was happening there. The immediate causes of the strike did not interest me as much as the attitude of three types of workers: the labor leader, the unionized worker and the worker who stuck by Governor Kohler.

I got into an argument with a labor leader about Governor Kohler, pointing to all the social services he had provided his laborers. "To hell with all that paternalistic tripe," said the labor man, "I'm for the union."

Rugged Individualists

So I asked him whether an employer wasn't entitled to some consideration during the Depression if he showed his workers a more than friendly attitude during both the boom and the Depression.

"Nothing matters but organization. We want unions. That's the way to have real recovery."

Mere unionism had become his faith, his scheme for the resurrection of the country. His mind does not take in all the problems that face the country but only the one that concerns him most.

I saw some of the strikers. They said that all they wanted was to get their jobs back. They had gone into the strike to get some benefits. They had lost the strike. All right, then the Governor should shake hands all around, give their jobs back to them and forget it. It was a fight, a mean fight, it is true. But what's the use of bearing a grudge? Besides, they need jobs and the only jobs they know how to do in the vicinity of Sheboygan are in the Kohler plant. The union lost the strike in spite of the assistance it got from public officials. Well, maybe the union can get Kohler to give them back their jobs. If not, they'll quit the union. No use belonging to a union that doesn't win strikes and doesn't get jobs back.

The third attitude was expressed by the men who remained in the plant during the strike. I conversed with a foreman in the plant while he and a group of men were baking bathtubs. He objected to Mr. Kohler's taking back any of the strikers because that might mean a reduction of hours and wages for those in the plant. His attitude clearly was that there was only enough work in that enterprise to take care of the 1,700 men at work. Their problem was solved, and they had no desire to be disturbed. He and his friends had really won the strike because they got their old pay back and full time work besides. If the strike had been lost, nobody would have got the old wages back because the business could not stand it. Maybe, they would lose their jobs because the union would not admit them to membership. Well, they won the strike. That's all there is to it. These three attitudes are representative of labor in every part of the country. It isn't a struggle over principles; it's a battle for jobs. And each man is battling to hold his own job—and only his own job. It is interesting to note in this connection that the labor leader was not an actual worker; he was a professional man associated with unions. In fact, it is difficult to find a labor leader who is at the moment employed on a job. As I go about the country, I more and more reach the conclusion, that leading labor is a profession like the law or medicine. It is a middle class, not a proletarian, profession. That is why labor leaders are capitalists, because economically they themselves belong to the capitalist class.

And the intelligent worker hopes either to become an executive, that is, a boss, or a labor leader, that is a professional. He works with his employer or with the union as he calculates it will benefit him. He is a striker or a strike-breaker as it will benefit him. It is a personal matter. Strictly personal.

No matter what part of the country I visited on this tour, I found men and women who referred to themselves as liberals and who denounced everyone who disagreed with them as reactionaries. This is the day for romantic cure-alls.

Every Man to His Taste

In this country, where there is no copyrighted use of the term, a liberal is anyone who wants to call himself a liberal. I have heard men refer to themselves as liberals who oppose the child labor amendment and I have heard Communists call themselves liberals. And in between these extremes is every gamut of human thought and emotion. Few are willing to be known as conservatives because it is so Hooverish to be a conservative. You seem to belong to another century.

It seems to me that the most remarkable phenomenon of the moment is that nearly every other man I met had manufactured a New Deal of his own. As soon as a conversation warms up, someone is seen busily inventing a shiny, glistening, automatic machine to achieve complete and perfect recovery by the next morning at daybreak. Schemes, proposals, ideas and explanations are offered wherever men and women meet to bring about a perfect society.

Last year, men talked economics; this year they

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plan and fight plans; they propose and dispose of plans. Last year, they were amused by the alphabet; this year, they create new names and slogans so fast that one reels at the thought that any of them might succeed.

One fellow would solve all our troubles by giving you paper money which would only be good for a month. After that it would be null and void. If you didn't spend all your money during the month of its validity, you would be out of luck. Another man would solve all our problems by abolishing Congress. (Yet this is not so ridiculous—in Washington they would abolish the Supreme Court—when it goes against them.) Another would postalize transportation, that is, just as the Post Office charges three cents for a stamp no matter how far the letter goes, so the railroads should charge a flat rate no matter where the goods are to go.

Fifty Dollar Government

SUCH schemes as the Townsend Plan and Huey Long's "Share the Wealth" have achieved the distinction of public notice, but there are thousands of other schemes which live through a month or so of excitement and perish. For instance, take this one:

There is a place in California called Holy City. A person called Father Riker apparently runs it. In Holy City they have a scheme and, surprising as it may seem, there are men and women who take it seriously. "Holy City offer: $50 Reward . . . If you can find a single flaw in this New Holy City Perfect Form of Government." The scheme is announced: "That any new or old Leader or Government that Fails to establish true peace and contentment to all sane-minded people concerned, is not the true leader or government in this age. A good government business is to successfully direct all of its people in a harmonious social progressive way, and so far all of them have failed."

Everywhere you go, you meet men and women who are in a hurry to redistribute wealth. I know one young woman who is down to her last millions. She is in a dreadful state because she is actually living on her principal. At her present rate of expenditure she will undoubtedly be ready for the poor-house when she reaches the age of one hundred and seventy-five. She grows steadily more stingy because poverty stares her in the face. The poor thing likes to talk as though she were a Communist because by some psychological twist her loss of several millions, which she had inherited, produces upon her exactly the same effect as the loss of a job does upon a workingman. She lives in terror of going broke and therefore wants to change the world, forgetful all the time that if it changes very much she will lose her remaining millions. She is emotionally incapable of resisting every new idea, even those that are detrimental to her interests.

There is an interesting psychological phenomenon, it seems to me, in this current of liberalism. In the early stages of the Depression, men were paralyzed intellectually. They just did not know what to do, or what to think. Then along came President Roosevelt and proposed a series of steps which would lead the people out of the house of bondage. The steps were taken, but many are still on the wrong side of the Jordan.

During the very earliest days of the Depression, if one can remember that far back, Congress was cursed as the original fountainhead of all evil; then the focus of hatred was the bankers, particularly the New York bankers. The argument in those days was that if you could substitute experts and professors, that is, men of unmotivated objectivity, for Congress and the bankers, all would be well on the Potomac. Well, that was done but all did not go well.

So today the cry is not so much against Congress and the bankers as it is against the entire system. It is all wrong. Therefore abolish the system immediately and substitute something, anything which will redistribute the wealth. The other night, when I was debating John Strachey in Ford Hall in Boston, I sensed this idea in every question which came from the audience. Cheap money, no money, high wages, no profits, low prices, no taxes—it all seems to be mixed up in the public mind.

And whenever a conservative quotes statistics or analyzes a statement carefully, the response seems to be:

"You brute! How can you quote statistics in the face of such apparent poverty?"

The curious paradox seems to be that whereas men will advocate every possible fantasy and will send telegrams to Congress at the behest of any fly-by-night philosopher so long as he says he is a liberal the average American stops short when the liberal adds to his flow of ideas a change in the form of the American government. The people are willing to share-the-wealth but they are not willing to get rid of the Constitution. They seem to be anxious to end poverty but not democracy.

But Let's Keep the Ship

I HAD this experience in Chanute, Kansas, for instance, talking at a teachers' convention. Before my lecture, I listened to an argument on the virtue and merits of another lecturer.

"It just can't be right," one teacher said, "that everything in the United States is rotten and everything in Soviet Russia and Italy is just so."

"But look at the progress the Russians have made," said the other teacher. "Why Dr. X told us this morning of the wonderful things they were doing to take care of their people. Hospitals—schools for the young—amusement centers."

"Yeah! But don't we have any hospitals? Do you know any city of decent size without hospitals? Do you know any part of the United States without schools? Good God, when the Depression hit us, we organized to feed 40,000,000 people and we haven't had a revolution or street-fighting or assassinations or anything of the kind."

Now, it has been a startling experience to me to find that in each community the most articulate,

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the most vocal insister upon immediate and sudden changes is a clergyman. Whereas in the past, the clergy have been a conserving force, advocating generally that there is wisdom in holding on to what you have because you may lose that too, in this present crisis, whenever an extreme position is established, there stand a goodly number of prominent clerics.

Vox Populi, Vox Dei

MOTIVES are always mixed and it would be absurd to suggest that any one explanation is sufficient to explain all the reasons for clerical extremities. Undoubtedly many clergymen are moved by the poverty of the unemployed and by the necessity for a greater social justice. Others, more worldly, have watched the career of Father Coughlin with that longing look which seems to say, "Why didn't I think of this, first?"

Many clergymen are undoubtedly influenced by the unwillingness of young people, even church members, to attend services. They have got to get the people back into the church. If they can't get them back on Sunday mornings, they'll try Thursday evenings. So, they organize forums and select their speakers on the basis of their sensationalism. It is always a surer bet that a radical will draw a big attendance while a conservative might get only a handful.

In some of the less worthy of these forums, the clergyman becomes an impresario. He has to think in terms of numbers, of box-office receipts. He has to have a drawing-card like Mme. Perkins, the Secretary of Labor, often enough to pay for some lecturer who talks on the less popular side. The theatricals of the situation have a psychological effect on the clergyman, for just as on the Sabbath he becomes austere and aloof, so during the forum hours his exhibitionism runs to matching the radicalism of his lecturers. He will show these local people that he is no old fogey standing for outworn ideas—he has read the New York weeklies and he knows what is happening in the world. Furthermore, he is occupationally in this position that he earns his living knowing and saying what is right and what is wrong—and in this respect, he will not be outdone by anyone.

I met two such clergymen in one Mid-Western town. I shall not identify them further. They were competitors in radicalism. If one attacked capitalism, the other made his attack more vitriolic. Most of their information came from the New York liberal weeklies. Their contacts with men of affairs were limited to occasional lecturers at their forums. There is no industrial situation in their city and their knowledge of labor is as remote as their knowledge of capitalists. They cater to farmers and the agricultural middlemen—the shippers of eggs and butter and flour and such things. Their outlook is naive. Once during the discussion of certain New Deal activities, I questioned the wisdom of an act which has since been dropped by the government as ineffective.

"Do you mean to tell me," said one of these clerics, "that people like Roosevelt, Ickes and Perkins can be wrong?"

More than surprised, I asked, "Why not? Aren't they human?"

Of course, this attitude is resented. Old congregants, who have been supporting the churches for years and years, are annoyed that nowadays their ministers join with those who would destroy them. Once I was lecturing in a church in Newark. I looked the audience over and saw that they did not belong. They were just the wrong people for that particular church. I asked the minister about it. He replied:

"Few of our church members come to the Forum. In fact, there is a difference of opinion among us about it. Most of this audience are strangers."

And I should imagine that that must be true all over the country. The average American does not like to see his minister on a picket line; he wants his minister to christen, confirm, marry and bury him and somehow these services do not easily associate themselves with the role of impresario to visiting lecturers or to leading men to strike. Somehow it goes against the grain.

Just Worn Out

ON this trip, then, I found this, that on the whole the business man and the worker who is employed are tired of the Depression and the Recovery and they want to be let alone. But so many business men and professional men and laborers are still out of work that there is a conflicting element in this country which goes to the other extreme of wanting to try every scheme once to see if anything will get them back on their jobs. This conflict between those who have discovered that they will somehow pull out of the mess and those who have only straws to catch at, is the excitement of the moment. It makes the politics of the day. It explains the rise to influence of Huey Long and Father Coughlin and the importance and excitement of Dr. Townsend.

On the other hand, it is apparent on all sides that resentment is increasing to every suggestion that the *form of government* be altered.

I was in Springfield, Ohio, one night discussing capitalism, communism and fascism and setting forth the argument from the capitalist point of view. A business man said to me:

"They must have got you wrong because of your Russian name. I don't believe they would have had you if your name were Smith or Jones. I haven't heard anyone say a good word for the business man or the country in years."

I can cite a hundred similar experiences. Men and women may go wild on their economics but they still have faith in the Supreme Court. It is an American characteristic to give the appearance of running wild but when it comes to fundamentals a canny conservatism holds even the radicals in check. Even Huey Long would not abolish the Constitution.

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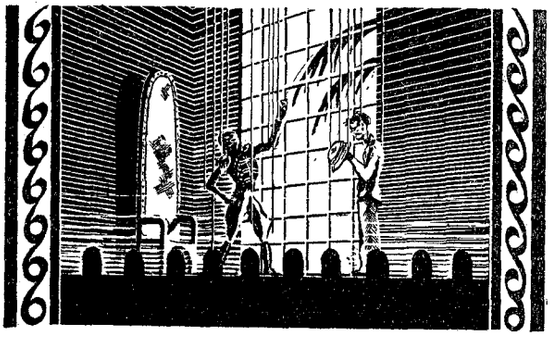
He Still Hangs Around

by Paul McPharlin

The lucky puppet, required neither to eat nor to pay taxes, generously devotes himself to the work of national relief, and even takes on extra duties in sales, advertising and social service.

IF YOU had been one of the casual playgoers who dropped in to see Punch's opera, "Bateman, or the Unhappy Marriage," at the house of Mr. Hamilton Hewetson, at the sign of the Spread-Eagle, near Whitehall Slip in New York, in the fall of 1747, you might have come out, still smiling over the antics of the puppets, and remarked that puppet shows were lots of fun, but of course a mere fad of the moment, something noised about by the clever pens of Addison and Steele in the *"Spectator,"* but doomed to the early death of all fashionable novelties. But then you could not have foreseen, had you not known that Punch's ancestors were alive and kicking in the Athens of Aristophanes and the Cathay of Confucius, that they would still be lively enough in the first third of the present perplexing century.

There is particular point just now that the puppet has survived. His future still hangs by a string as it always has through the ages. The cord is a little frayed by the Depression perhaps, but it remains stout. It is moving him today not only in his original orbit, that of amusement, but also in the world of education, where he has achieved the status of a course subject in a half dozen colleges, and in addition as an able helper in the spheres of advertising, salesmanship and social service.



When the zigzag on business charts was slumping toward an unplumbed abyss, the graph of puppet progress wiggled demurely onward and upward. At A Century of Progress, 1933, there were three puppet shows. At A Century of Progress, 1934, there were ten. That exaggerates the rate of advance of puppet popularity, but is nevertheless illustrative.

Back in 1747 when puppet showmen came from Europe now and then, playing in small rooms where the burgomasters had not banned the theatre as a masterpiece of Satan, homesick English provincials eagerly flocked to their shows, getting a taste of the civilized pleasures they remembered, or fancied to be, in the old country. So it was during the period of westward settlement. In log taverns and arrow-pocked stockades the familiar squeak of Punch and Judy brought to the harassed pioneer a momentary sense of London or quiet English lanes. Punch was an entertainer, but more, he was a point of contact with the homeland. However, he was merely a small feature of the teeming life of early America, occupying a place of no more importance than he

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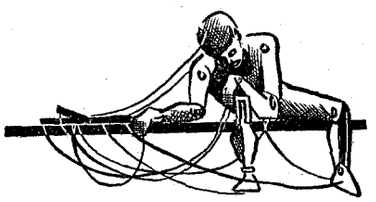
had across the sea. While immigrants were busy struggling for existence or scraping together millions, something was happening to the puppets back in Europe, something they did not for a long time suspect. Puppets were coming up in the world. First they were adopted out of the street and the booth at the fair by the noble. It became the thing to do to slum at Bartholomew—there went Lady Castlemain with Pepys dangling after—and see the puppets. Or better, one might command the showman to bring his theatre into one's own high-ceilinged salon to amuse a party.

When the show was to be particularly swanky, one commissioned good upholsterers, gilders, carvers and puppet-makers to build a complete theatre for the occasion. Such a theatre, which must have cost as much then as a custom built Lincoln does today, is preserved in the Victoria and Albert Museum, a marvel of rococo grace. Young Goldoni found such a theatre in an old palace on the Brenta which he visited. Prince Esterhazy had one built and Haydn wrote operettas to play in it.

The middle classes soon after were having pup-



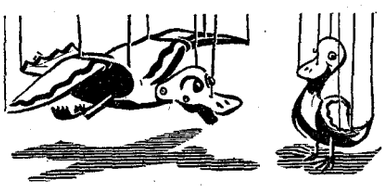
pet theatres in their parlors. Tabloid versions of cambric and cardboard did their best to look like satin and rosewood. The children of the family were given these for toys, but it was probably the grownups who were sold by their gleam in a stationer's window. To list the people who played with toy puppet theatres when they were young, and recalled the pleasant hours in later life would require a roster of the whole nineteenth century. Picking out a few, there were Goethe, Hans Christian Andersen, Lewis Carroll, Tad Lincoln, the Dauphin, son of Napoleon III, Robert Louis Stevenson, Aubrey Beardsley—but it has become almost a literary formula for one to write about these childhood delights. By stopping here I can inadvertently omit none of the scores who have recently been attesting their devotion to the miniature theatre.

Now, while the puppet theatre was becoming bourgeois and respectable, the artists were pulling it in still another direction. The writers, George Sand's son Maurice among them, adopted it as a mouthpiece for satiric trifles. Not the broad and often dirty satires of the puppets of the street, no, something on quite another plane, publishable satires. There are a dozen volumes of French puppet plays of the nineteenth century, filled with witty verse and dead political allusions. A while after, puppets were discovered by the painters and sculptors, and this brings us to our own century and to the revival of the puppet's fortunes in the United States.

There are three confluent forces, exerted by three individuals all of whom began to work with puppets at the same time.

Tony Sarg, Guatemala-born of German parents, whose first interest has always been drawing, started to make puppets as a hobby in London. For models he observed Italian marionettes that played in vaudeville. They were mechanically slick, and their forte was to turn inside out and transform themselves at the crack of a gun. When Sarg jumped to New York at the outbreak of the world war he set up in the Flatiron Building (then still notable among skyscrapers) and gave studio shows for his friends. Winthrop Ames happened to be in one of the invited audiences. He backed Sarg, who built an elaborate show of short pieces and brought it to Broadway. Do you remember that, back in 1916?

Now Ellen Van Volkenburg, a Michigan woman, in her work with Maurice Browne at the Chicago Little Theatre, felt that marionettes might be used for serious artistic productions of the sort that Gordon Craig had been writing about (he promulgated his theory of the Uebermarionette, a more-than-humanly-perfect actor, in 1908). She had probably read, besides, one of Maeterlinck's prefaces in which he stated that only puppets could do justice to his plays. And so, with a German marionette, which she had picked up on a trip abroad, for a model, she set to work and produced eight artistically conceived plays, including "Alice in Wonderland" and "A Midsummer Night's Dream," between 1915 and 1917, for the benefit of callous Chicagoans.



In 1919 she joined forces with Sarg, directing "The Rose and the Ring" for him. So it happened that plays of literary background with artistic staging and well-made marionettes came to be the American norm, for Sarg took to the road with his productions and infected every audience with the desire to see more marionettes and to make them.

I spoke of three confluent forces. The third is weakest, but still important. It is that of Remo Bufano, who began doing shows in Italian as a kid in a New York settlement house. For model he took the hieratic Sicilian puppet, heroic and simple of movement, which was the only kind he had ever seen. As he grew up he realized the value of the primitive in such puppets, and he has always worked, in his career of puppet showman, for naivete of effect. This is in direct contrast with the polished, sometimes overly-realistic, Sarg tradition. Bufano has had few followers, although artists will side with him in feeling that the puppet is best when simplest. He has been working with puppets as long as Sarg, mostly in New York, seldom on the road.

It was in 1920 that the Sarg companies began

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to tour and make America puppet-conscious. Remember that puppets were no novelty in America; they had been here since 1747. They had, in fact, been here before Columbus. Alaskan Indians knew the uses of the string-puppet, which they had most likely brought from Asia, before Europeans met them. And string-puppets, by the way, had probably traveled eastward from Athens, as shadow puppets traveled westward from Cathay, to reach western Europe at that opportune moment when silhouettes and magic lanterns were in vogue.

Novelty or not, puppets in their new incarnation took like wildfire. Every school where Sarg played wanted to make puppets of its own. The Sarg "puppeteers" (a new word in the language, invented by the Van Volkenburg workers in Chicago) wanted to manage shows of their own. Some of them succeeded in doing so. New puppet companies sprang up, some from seed and some from cuttings, to flourish in remote sections of the country. Old puppet showmen, here before Sarg, changed over to the Sarg type of show from their vaudeville turns, or else became superannuated. Here and there one may still find a Punch and Judy man of the old school, puzzled and indignant at the new order of things.

Whenever a movement catches the popular fancy there is danger that it will be exploited until the public sickens and it dies. Puppets at the moment are dancing on the crest of a wave of popularity. There are, in contrast with the three companies of Sarg, Van Volkenburg and Bufano in 1915, at least 50 professional companies in the United States in 1935. These play in small permanent theatres, like that (recently abandoned for a berth in a department store), of Ralph Chessé in San Francisco, of the Marionette Fellowship of Detroit in the former office building of the Ford Motor Company, now housing a group of arts and crafts studios called the Artisan Guild, and of the Yale Puppeteers, who have for the moment given up their quarters both in Los Angeles and New York. Or else they travel about, and this is more usual, playing in schools, clubs, store windows and occasionally in actual theatres.

Besides the professionals there are about 200 amateur groups of fairly permanent organization, mostly in schools, consisting of children under teacher guidance, and some in private homes or in societies such as the Junior League, which produces puppet plays in a dozen cities in an effort to provide suitable theatre fare for children. The puppet groups which spring up over night and wilt in midday sun defy a census, and the individuals who dabble in puppet making without getting very far are numbered in thousands.

Most of these shows pretend to be nothing but entertainment, and some are perhaps not even that. But in the schools they are countenanced because they are conceded to have real educative power. Children accept the puppet, as do grownups when they admit it to themselves, as they would a living actor. It is more alive to them than the image on the motion picture screen, for it has three dimensions and color.

It takes little persuasion to get a youngster to lose himself in the spirited action of its play. The puppet, with its ability for superhuman movement, can be identified with one's own wildest wishes of athleticism and release from gravity. Besides, it is as funny a distortion of humanity as the wavy mirrors at a sideshow. Knowing this, teachers may dramatize everything from literature to hygiene (if they are subtle enough not to make the puppet a preacher), and get information to stick in their pupils' heads without effort of the usual sort. And they may train children in the wide range of handicrafts, carpentry, modeling, sewing, painting, electric lighting, which enter into the making of a puppet production, as well as induce them to use their voices clearly in speaking parts without making them suffer the agonies of the adolescent in appearing before an audience.

In order that teachers and parents may know more about puppetry, themselves, courses in it have for a few years past been given in these universities: Washington (Seattle), California (Berkeley), Wisconsin (Madison), Johns Hopkins (Baltimore) and Wayne (Detroit), besides many smaller colleges and art schools.

Advertisers and propagandists were not slow to harness the puppet to their own uses. Punch has always been able to whack the politician with impunity, or if he wished, to become the politician's stump speaker. He is honored today in Czechoslovakia for the part he took in furthering the republic's independence. He is fed and petted in Russia because, or when, he ballyhoos for Five Year Plans and the liquidation of ignorance. In New York he has turned Red, and belabors Morgan and Hitler by turn to the delight of socialistic audiences.

In Tokyo he teaches health lessons at clinics, in the Middle West of the United States he has been hired to make children drink milk and eat their vegetables, and in more than one big American city he has asked them to obey traffic signals. He has aided community chest campaigns and celebrated book weeks. He has taught the use of the toothbrush and kindness to animals and tuberculosis prevention. A useful citizen, or at any rate a resourceful one, in making his living.

For the puppet, much as he likes to play Shakespeare, must pay his rent and expressage, and will sell himself for a consideration. At the Chicago fair in 1933 he worked for the A. & P. He didn't praise their groceries, but gave a good show, knowing that he would make more friends that way than by singing of sandless spinach. At Chicago in 1934 he recommended refrigerators, electric power, two kinds of scouring powder, shoes of a certain brand, and butter. His sponsors were overly insistent that he talk salestalk, however, and he grew in instances pretty dull. Last year he also went on the road with half a dozen companies, covering the larger cities in the United States and Canada on behalf of a cosmetician. He played in store windows and attracted the passerby.

In Detroit he first went to the biggest de-

(*Continued on page* 62)

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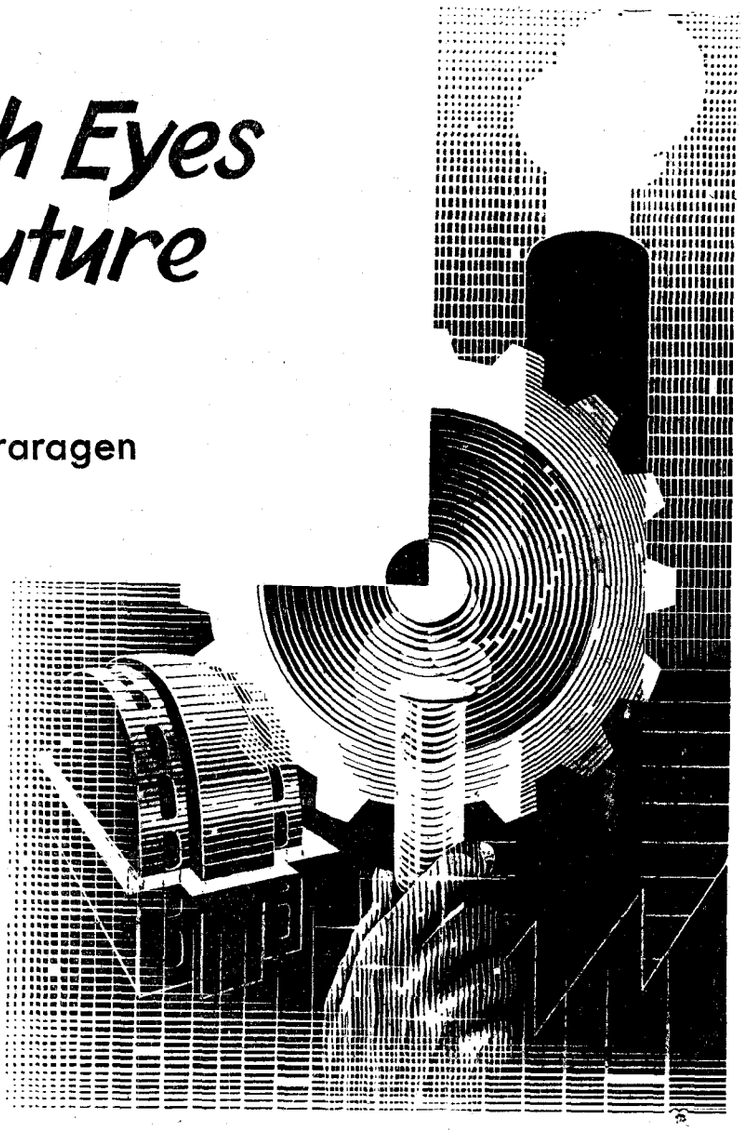
Research Eyes On the Future



by William Spraragen

As an introduction to the findings of the Study of Population Redistribution made under the auspices of the Wharton School of Finance, U. of P., shortly to be published, Mr. Spraragen reports on the new discoveries of industrial science which will affect population redistribution in the future.

NEW, vital, growing industries to create employment opportunities and to inject enervating blood transfusions into some of our older industries are in demand by statesmen and industrialists alike.

Scientific research laboratories everywhere turned their attention in the Depression from lowering costs of production to the development of new products. Bills are already on their way to Congress to foster new non-competitive industries, whatever that may be. A committee in Washington, concerned with a nation-wide study of Population Redistribution, considered it important enough to give heed to possible population redistribution implications of currently conducted scientific research. As a matter of fact this study of the researches, including new products or processes recently, or about to be, put on the market, reveals that research may be considered as a stabilizing factor in present-day employment conditions in industry and in agriculture.

"Research is an organized effort to find out what you are going to do when you can't keep on doing what you are doing now," states Mr. Charles F. Kettering, Vice-President of the General Motors Corporation, in charge of research. Fifteen hundred and seventy-five industrial research laboratories scattered over the United States, supplemented by a large number of laboratories connected with Universities, State Experimental Stations and governmental departments, are trying to do just that for industry and agriculture today.

The purpose of an industrial research department is to produce goods more cheaply, to improve their quality, to develop new products and in general to make them more attractive to public buying.

Lowering the costs of production may sometimes tend, at least at first, to cut down employment, which tendency may be offset in some cases by bringing about a greater demand for the given product because of its lower cost. Improvement in quality tends to bring about a greater utilization of a product, but at the same time it may make it last longer. Although the reports of 300 laboratories indicate that in these times the major emphasis of industrial research programs has been on the development of new products, there are not many possibilities of large new industries coming into existence in the immediate future which will cause any considerable shifts of present unemployed labor. This conclusion seems fairly obvious when one considers that during the past decade the majority of inventions and products have come from the industrial and scientific laboratories rather than from the old type of inventor working alone. This implies that the new products, even if they assume proportions large enough to be labeled "new indus-

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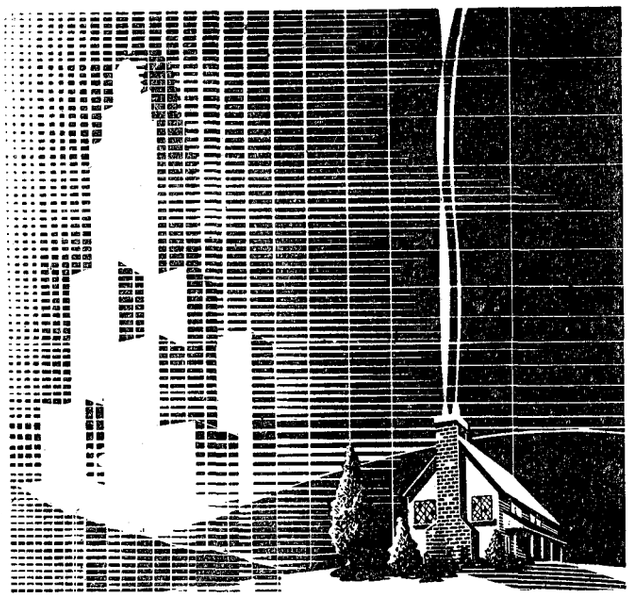

tries," will tend to provide continual employment for the workers now connected with the companies supporting such laboratories. In some instances such as, for example, the glass industry, additional labor will be employed. In other industries, such as automotive, chemicals, electrical, fisheries, dairy, food, machinery, non-ferrous metals and paper, the research laboratories in the development of new products or new fields of application will be able to continue the employment of their present staffs; and in still other industries, such as mining and steel, lower costs of production will be brought about through the employment of less labor. In still other cases, such as some branches of lumber, pottery and old types of paints, the price of progress will mean the shifting of employment to other industries at their expense.

Air-Conditioning

AIR-CONDITIONING of offices and buildings will make possible better living conditions in congested areas and may result in less travel to mountain and northern regions in summer and southern regions in winter. On the other hand, air-conditioning of railroad cars may increase traffic on the railroads. The development of the industry itself will provide the continuation of employment for those companies which are now manufacturing mechanical refrigerators, air-conditioning apparatus, oil burners, insulating materials and electric motors, as these companies are the ones at present experimenting with such developments. Improved and cheaper air-conditioning will undoubtedly make living conditions in hot climates more tolerable.

Ceramics

THE brick industry, which normally employs about 100,000 men, exclusive of the face brick and paving brick, is now operating at about 10 per cent of capacity. Many of these employees are finding it necessary to secure other employment.

The clay products industry has been another great sufferer in the Depression. This industry attempts to operate in winter time and should lend itself admirably to supplementary work in mines or agriculture.

The pottery industry is facing serious inroads from the glass industry and will find it necessary to diversify its products or possibly to mechanize its work to compete with the glass industry. Regardless of whether the loss of business to the glass industry is permanent, of whether mechanization is resorted to, many employees will find it necessary to seek work elsewhere unless a diversification of products can be brought about.

On the other hand, the glass container industry, which is generally located near fuel and raw material supplies, is not nearly so badly off as some of the other branches of the ceramic industry. New forms of glass, such as glass wool and glass brick for insulation, air filters and construction are now being developed. In one particular case, this has led to the opening of a factory in Newark, Ohio, which had previously remained closed. Other developments include safety glasses and combinations of material.

Chemicals

CHANGES in the employment situation in the chemical industry is always a possibility. This industry is a staunch supporter of scientific research. Regardless of whether there is any stimulation toward decentralization, as the result of Federal legislation, there are bound to be rather large movements in the chemical industry. Six new chemical plants at an estimated cost of $35,000,000 have recently moved to the South. This section of the country stands to gain because of her mineral, agricultural and timber resources. Cheap electric power is an important influence, as is also the location of essential raw materials and fuel supplies. Three of the plants mentioned are in the alkali industry. These alkali plants are the Solvay Process Company, with their plant at Baton Rouge, La., the Mathieson Alkali Works, at Lake Charles, La., and the Southern Alkali Company at Corpus Christi, Tex.

The other three chemical plants mentioned are the Ethyl-Dow Chemical Company near Wilmington, N. C., built for purposes of exploiting a new process for recovering bromine from sea water; the Southern Kraft Corporation in Florida and the Freeport Sulphur Company at Lake Grande, Ecaille, La. The latter two moves were dependent upon the source of raw material.

Another recent development is the Kingsport, Tenn., plant of the Eastman Kodak Company for the development of cellulose acetate products. As the result of this, over 3,000 people are employed in the Kingsport plant, mostly coming from mountain districts of Tennessee in a neighborhood where industrial employment has been difficult to obtain.

In one instance, there has been the substitution of vegetable glues for animal glues, which is used in large industrial institutions such as wood-working, in which starch products have very largely

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displaced animal glues in the production of veneers and panels used in furniture making.

Coal

GREAT changes will be made in this industry as the result of scientific research, although perhaps not in the immediate future. Coal will be looked upon as a source of chemical materials rather than as fuel. Through high and low temperature distillation, coal will be made to yield coke, gas fuel, fertilizers and a large number of chemicals which will be used for a variety of purposes.

Food

INVESTIGATION by the Evaporated Milk Association, over the past ten years at a cost of $100,000, has resulted in an increase of 57 per cent in evaporated milk consumption. This has had the effect of stabilizing employment at the evaporated milk plants, which are located, almost without exception, in small towns. The decentralization of the evaporated milk industry has been responsible for increased production of dairying in places where the industry had not been strong previously. This is merely one example of what research has done for the oldest industry.

As a by-product of the brewing industry, there has been developed the manufacture of "black malt," diastatic, baker's and pharmaceutical syrups, brewer's and beverage concentrates and textile desizing material.

Medical

THE development of vitamin D products promises a profusion of changes in a number of industries. Until 1928 the principal source for this remedial agent was cod liver oil, of which several million gallons are imported into the United States annually. An ounce of ergosterol, which may be developed in several ways, when irradiated with ultra-violet makes the vitamin D equivalent of about seven tons of cod liver oil. Within the last two years, methods have been developed for obtaining from various species of fish liver oils which run from ten to five hundred times the potency of cod liver oil in vitamins A and D. On the Pacific Coast practically every halibut, tuna and rockfish liver is now being saved for its oils which were formerly discarded.

Studies made by the Colorado Foundation have shown a surprisingly high correlation between low death rates and altitude in tuberculosis. When this study is completed, it may have some effect towards speeding up the migration of health-seekers to high altitude states.

Paper

RAPID progress is continuing in the paper industry, particularly in the development of new supplies of raw materials and new products. The development of one new paper product might conceivably cause paper to replace cotton to the extent of three to four million pounds per year.

In recent years, the industry has expanded in both the Southern states and the Pacific Coast states. The cause of this expansion was the fact that, through research, methods were discovered whereby the tree species in those regions were successfully pulped and converted into paper. These developments, obviously, led to a considerable shift in the number of workers employed in the regional units in the pulp and paper industry.

In view of the fact that the pulp and paper industry is largely dependent upon nearby sources of pulpwood, the industry is largely located in communities of small population. In a survey of the Paper Industry Authority made recently, it was found that over 25 per cent of the mills in the industry were the sole source of employment in the community. This is true in the South and West, and in older producing regions.

The recent work done by Dr. C. H. Herty with regard to the use of southern pines for white sulphite pulp and paper is significant as it indicates future trends towards production of this pulp and paper in the South, thereby limiting a great deal of importations from Canada. This is almost the situation which developed in the kraft industry some years ago.

Some companies feel that there will be a shift to the West Coast for pulp and papers of the bond and similar grades, which can be made easily from the type of pulp that is produced in Washington and Oregon.

Steel

THERE is an ever increasing tendency toward the use of automatic machinery in the steel mills so as to decrease the number of men employed per ton of sheet steel. However, this has resulted in a marked increase in the use of steel generally.

The use of steel in the home building industry may replace other materials now used and will influence to some extent workers in the building materials industries as well as employment of workers who construct homes.

The development of pressed steel sinks, wash basins, bath tubs, and other porcelain enameled ware will, without doubt, replace some articles made from cast iron. As a matter of fact, cast iron has already been replaced by more superior cast materials and by welded rolled steel shapes.

There is some thought that the steel industry may move westward to the vicinity of Detroit and other larger centers of steel consumption.

There is a competitive struggle to modernize strip and sheet steel equipment, with a view to lowering costs. It is estimated that approximately $50,000,000 of new steel-finishing capacity will have been contracted for by the end of this year.

Each continuous sheet mill costs $3,500,000 to $8,000,000, depending on the width of steel produced. Five mills have been built in the last year, two are under construction, one has been authorized and three more are considered—eleven in all.

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Transportation

FOR nearly a century, the railroad was the only mechanical means of overland transportation of people and of goods. Today it has to compete with the airplane, the automobile, the bus, the truck, the pipe line and improved waterway agencies.

The Diesel power unit is a new development and is of a relatively low operating cost. Through this, the railroads hope to regain a good portion of the 30 per cent passenger revenues it lost in competition with higher speeds and more flexible units. Even today there are transcontinental freight trains carrying California fruit and vegetables to New York markets at relatively high speeds. Fully air-conditioned, streamlined trains of either aluminum or stainless steel will be a factor in bringing back passenger revenues. Such trains permit great savings in weight. These developments are likely to give employment to companies manufacturing air-conditioning devices and Diesel power units and fabricators of stainless steel and aluminum. There probably will be a gradual tendency toward lighter weight freight car construction as well.

Agricultural Research

THE AGENCIES. In agriculture, the most effective agency in the promotion of scientific research is the United States Department of Agriculture, working in close coöperation with the State Agricultural Colleges and Experimental Stations. The undertakings in agricultural research in which the Department of Agriculture and Experiment Stations took part during the past year totaled 802. These researches are giving considerable impetus to the development of better and more profitable use of land and to rural social betterment.

LAND USE. The major concern of American Agriculture at the present time is to find more efficient ways and means of using land and of adjusting production, both quantitatively and qualitatively, to consumption.

Soils have been and are being studied and classified on an extensive scale, and their crop adaptations determined under widely varying conditions. A new impetus has been given to such work and its value is being more fully appreciated because of its essential bearing on the national policy of restricting cultivation to the best lands, utilizing the less productive land for pastures, forests and parks with the attendant problems of crop adjustments on a national scale and the best use of the lands thus thrown out of cultivation.

SOIL EROSION. According to a statement recently issued by the Department of Agriculture, soil erosion has already destroyed for crop production 35,000,000 acres of land in the United States formerly used for cultivated crops, and caused serious damage to 200,000 additional acres. The annual cost of the damage done by soil erosion and attendant injuries is estimated at not less than $400,000,000.

In coöperation with the Experiment Stations and other state agencies, the Federal Government is studying the subject of erosion control on an extensive scale to find means which can be applied for protection against further ruin of about a million acres of naturally good land which is washing away and losing fertility at an alarming rate. It includes terracing, dams to control flood water, planting trees and soil binders and the like, and is being done in coöperation with various bureaus of the Department and state agencies.

The Depression has intensified interest in the possibility of developing new uses for farm products other than food. In these considerations, agriculture is looked upon as a chemical industry in which the machine or processes is the plant. The energy is supplied by the sun, the raw materials are the products of the soil, fertilizers, gases of the atmosphere and water. There will be a gradual increased importance placed upon agriculture as a chemical industry as the shortage of petroleum becomes more acute several decades hence. Perhaps of even greater importance to the American farmer is the replacement of products of agriculture imported from other countries. Such activities will, undoubtedly, have a profound effect on future population redistribution and a closer tie-in of agriculture and industry.

Much has already been learned about the industrial utilization of corn and its by-products. Some of the more obvious are the manufacture of building and insulating materials from cornstalks and the manufacture and use of industrial alcohol. For example, the finish used on automobiles requires the use of butyl alcohol, which is made from corn by the fermentation process. It is estimated that this industry, before the Depression, used corn produced on 300,000 acres.

There is extensive scientific literature on the use of ethyl alcohol alone as a fuel for internal combustion motors of the spark ignition type. The Chemical Foundation has estimated that the gasoline consumption of the United States was nearly 17,000,000,000 gallons in 1930. To replace even one per cent of this quantity of motor fuel with ethyl alcohol would require the equivalent of 68,000,000 bushels of corn, or 65,000,000 bushels of wheat, or 204,000,000 bushels of potatoes, or 350,000,000 gallons of blackstrap molasses.

Fats and oils are used in the soap industry. Molasses is used in the manufacture of industrial alcohol. The shortage of rubber can be met by a number of plants growing in the Southwest.

The development of a new sweet potato starch industry is just beginning.

Forestry

CURRENT scientific research in forestry divides into three broad fields; biological, industrial and economic. In all three fields, the employment and population implications are both interesting and important.

Biologically, the important objective is to reestablish or reclaim the forest resources of the

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nation. Except in a very minor degree forest utilization hitherto has been the exploitation of unearned increments; that is, of timber products created without conscious or constructive effort by man. From now on, adequate timber supplies will depend very largely upon such conscious and constructive effort. This means that an appreciable part of the population must devote its energies to the growing of trees. In time, the number of people so engaged probably will equal or exceed the maximum numbers hitherto finding employment in the harvesting of the naturally produced forests.

Textiles

IN REGARD to textile materials, there have been improvements in machinery and experiments on the use of Southern woods for the manufacture of rayons. As far as the laboratory goes, these experiments have been successful, and I have no doubt that the results will be used commercially.

I have right before me some excellent textile materials made from purified cellulose. All vegetable life is composed of a framework or integral structure of cellulose, whether it be tree, plant, or grass. Scientists have developed methods which remove every raw material from cellulose. These impurities are, of course, various resins, lignines and cements that are necessary in plant life.

Similar products are being perfected in Germany. The resultant product may be made to resemble cotton or wool.

Oils

DEVELOPMENT in geophysical methods of petroleum exploration has provided employment for a number of scientists in the United States, Mexico and South America. They are generally equipped with portable and traveling laboratories. The result of such work is the discovery of an oil field which later, of course, involves the building of an oil field town and often an appreciable migration of population. Many of the refineries are located near crude oil production and naturally would be influenced by that industry.

Consequences of Research

UNTIL the introduction of the first labor-saving farm machine, the chief occupation of the people all over the world was the production of food and clothing.

In 1820, 83 per cent of all the workers that were gainfully employed in the United States devoted their energies to agricultural pursuits. In 1850, which is regarded as the beginning of the animal power era, this percentage dropped to less than 70 per cent. In 1910, the beginning of the mechanical power era, the percentage stood at 35 per cent. In 1930, the ratio dropped to 22 per cent. At first, inventive genius was turned to the design of machines best adapted to animal power. The farmer under this regime being relieved of much monotony and drudgery of field operations looked for better methods of production. It was in this period that scientific agriculture was inaugurated. Mechanical power utilization made it possible to support two urban workers for every farm worker. The high cost of man labor and the unreliability of transient help were primary considerations in the inauguration of power machinery.

Looking at it another way, only 258 persons out of every 1,000 were gainfully employed in 1820 and of these 215 were agricultural workers. The 1870 census tells us that the total employment had increased to 324 per 1,000 population, of which only 154 were required to produce food and clothing material. The loss of 61 agricultural workers per thousand of population was offset by a gain of 127 per thousand in the number of those otherwise employed. In 1920 the total number of those employed had increased to 394, of which 104 were agricultural workers. In 1930 there were only 85 agricultural workers out of 397. One way of looking at this might be to consider that labor-saving machinery has actually created employment by enabling the development of industry and commerce so that relatively a small fraction of our population need be concerned with the production of food for the entire country.

Employment statistics indicate also that in 1920 there was a total of 5,000,200 engaged in processing, transporting and distributing agricultural products and other articles made from farm products. Again it might be considered that about 1,700,000 wage earners were actually employed in producing raw materials and in manufacturing this agricultural labor-saving machinery, to which might be added another 300,000 who were engaged as salaried employees and wage earners in transporting, distributing and servicing these labor-saving machines.

It is unfortunate that advertising and propaganda have laid particular stress on the man power replaced by labor-saving machinery in industry and agriculture. Science and the machine are not at fault, but rather those who use these machines or distribute the results of the use of these machines. For example, no one would want a farmer to discard a tractor and to take up a spade instead. This would be one way of limiting production, but everyone can see that it would be a poor way.

Scientific research is proving to be a stabilizing influence in population movements in the field of agriculture. If the farmer has difficulty from insect pests, diseases, deficiency in soil, science is asked to show the way to overcome them. If there is an over-production of certain commodities, researches are made to indicate new agricultural products best suited for the community. If the profit of margin is too low, ways are developed for lowering the cost of production or increasing the yield. Because of the complexity of modern civilization, it sometimes happens that researches which aid one community to a more profitable existence cause loss of markets to some other community.

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Men Who Diq

In this NEW OUTLOOK group-personal-graph, Mr. Pendray presents a gallery of experts who seek to explain our past by what lies under the ground.

by G. Edward Pendray

WHAT TRACES, if any, will remain to testify to our present civilization when a thousand years have rolled by?

No doubt there will be some ruins of our major public works. Dams, water systems and roadways are built to endure, and probably will last at least as long as have the whitening foundations of the Roman aqueducts. But paper, clothing, metals and literature—these may be expected to disappear, except for a few isolated examples. Even our graveyards will yield relatively little information, for we have failed to develop the custom of burying portions of our households with the dead.

There will be, nevertheless, fine pickings for future historians in our enormous dump-heaps There is slowly building there, layer on layer, the great history of our day, the record of our first primitive entry into the machine age, our frightful wastefulness, the passing phases of the evolution of the automobile, the bathtub, the washing machine and the refrigerator. Some traces of all these things, sealed in their sterile strata of dry ashes, will remain for a millennium or more for the edification of puzzled future archaeologists, who will no doubt argue bitterly among themselves as to the probable use to which we put such implements.

So it is with the diggers of our day, in their search for knowledge of the distant past. One of the major scientific discoveries of the 19th Century was that the past lies buried beneath our feet; that man records more of his history in his refuse heaps than in his books. Since then patient diggers have toiled in many parts of the world to put together the as yet disjointed and sketchy story of mankind's humble, half-simian beginnings, and to give the dry bones of many an ancient philosopher and king new life by the exhumation of the gems, the tapestries, the tableware, the clothing and other vanities with which he lived. In recent years the diggers have begun to assemble and give chronology to the entire pageant of human progress since its earliest beginnings: reading, from a few pitiful remnants of stone-age tools, tattered skeletons, pictures drawn by ancient artists in dark caves, the prehistoric dump-heaps of our neolithic ancestors and traces of the earliest civilizations, the almost incredible story of the rise of man from cowering beast to master of the earth.

One of the most recent additions to the tale, for example, was discovered in a huge mound of debris known as Tepe Gawra in Northern Mesopotamia. In the eleventh layer of occupation, it was announced on February 11, 1935, by the Museum of the University of Pennsylvania, has been found what may have been the world's earliest city, a settlement that flourished 5,700 years ago.

Now, such discoveries are not made by hit or miss digging, like that in vogue fifty years ago, and still to be found among the huge group of amateur archaeologists the world over. The science of digging up the past has become exact and exacting. It is not so much what is discovered as how and where it is discovered. The perception of subtle relationships by which a given find may be dated and interpreted requires long practice, skill, wide knowledge, perseverance and a touch of the sort of genius which makes a great detective.

The relics of the past were laid down and preserved by natural processes which are still going on today. Implements were buried by the sands, by the action of water, or by the natural accumulation of other stuff on top of them. Covered over, each old stratum formed a foundation for the new. The records of ancient peoples are thus often laid down in layers, like the leaves of a book, the oldest on the bottom, the newest on top, the story of their development running between.

Stone Age Housekeepers

SOME of the finest series of discoveries of early man, for example, have been unearthed in ancient European caves, most of which are by this time all but filled with debris. When the Stone-Age men first sought out such shelter the climate of Europe was already becoming cold, for the last long Age of Ice was beginning to approach.

Fortunately for the archaeologists, the ladies of that age were poor housekeepers. Rather than clean out the cave, they lived on the rubbish. Their broken tools, broken marrow-sucked bones that remained from their meals, traces of their ancient fires, and occasionally the skeletons of their dead joined the accumulations. Families of the Stone Age were wont to move, just as are the families of moderns. For various reasons the cave, after occupation sometimes for several generations by a single family, or at least by a single culture, was

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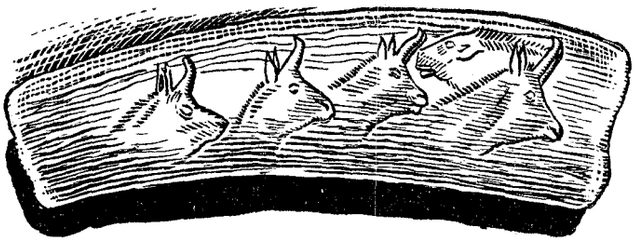
left unoccupied. Bears moved in. Dust blew in from out of doors. Later a new, a fresh, family moved in. Often this later family was of a different race; it had different tools, consumed different kinds of food, followed different customs and of course left a different kind of trash behind.



Many such occupations occur in a typical cave, over a period of hundreds or thousands of years. At length the cave becomes too full to be comfortable, and is abandoned by humans for all time. In such caves archaeologists find, layer upon layer, records of a score or more different human occupations, yielding not only information as to the kind of people who had been represented in each, but also a rough and ready method of dating the relative ages of the occupations. At the bottom, for example, will be the most primitive peoples; later come the men with better tools: finely chipped flints, a greater variety of stone and bone implements. In the middle and upper layers appear simple, crude artistic efforts—bone statuettes, beads, pictures of animals now long extinct, scratched on bone. And in some of the European caves, in the inner chambers, there are great drawings or paintings on the walls, always of animals, some beautifully finished with colored clays.

Before the Cave Era

PRIOR to the cave era, man apparently lived in the open. His earlier history must be sought in his primitive camping places, in the quarries where he obtained stone for his tools, in the places where he sat down to chip them into implements, in the holes where his dead lie buried. The traces of these early, nomadic men are hardest of all to find and interpret. Sometimes, fortunately, they are found in geological layers of known age, or associated with bones of such animals as give a clue to their period and habits. For example, there has recently been discovered definite evidence for the existence of nomadic hunters in America as far back as the close of the last glacial age. The earliest human culture so far detected is that of the so-called Folsom Men, named from a site near Folsom, New Mexico, where the initial discoveries were made.

These ancient Americans are known by a characteristic, leaf-shaped artifact, a dart or spear point. It was quite different, and showed much finer workmanship than the later and more familiar Indian arrowhead. These flints have been found with the bones of an extinct type of bison, buried under many feet of wind-blown soil. Again, they have been found in the lower levels of caves in New Mexico, associated with the burned horns of musk-oxen. Such discoveries have been interpreted as meaning that the Folsom Men, whose skeletons have not yet been discovered, were hunters of large animals, fine stoneworkers, and inhabitants of this continent in a day when musk-oxen, traditionally cold weather animals, roamed in New Mexico. That was possibly 30,000 years ago—a time when the walls of northern ice stood a mile high in the Great Lakes region, Cincinnati, and all the middle west was tundra not unlike the present plains of northern Siberia.

It must not be supposed, however, that all archaeologists are preoccupied with the relics and history of Stone-Age men. In fact, the first archaeology was of the "classical" sort—digging in the ruins of Greece and Rome. Greek and Roman archaeology led to Cretan, Egyptian, Babylonian, Assyrian and Persian excavation.

In America the "classical" archaeologists have their counterparts in the Middle American diggers—the seekers after more knowledge of the spontaneous civilization which grew up in the New World independently of the Old. Curiously enough, the methods devised by the Americanists have proved of great importance to the "classical" archaeologists of the Old World cultures, when they have had sense enough to apply them. American archaeology has progressed fast because the scientist can approach it objectively, without emotionalism or preconceptions based on race, tradition, or patriotism. On the other hand, preconceived notions have sent many an Old World digger on a wild goose chase. A great number of them have gone out into the field simply to find evidence that would prove a theory — often a theory grounded in some bit of patriotic tomfoolishness like the Aryan idea. It has been extremely hard for Europeans to accept the truth that unbiased evidence has revealed—that the civilization of the Old World had its origin in the non-"Aryan," non-"Nordic" Near East, in the horseshoe-shaped land which lies around the eastern end of the Mediterranean.

In a field that has so many specialties, covers such a wide geographical area and deals with the most complex subject under the sun—the human race—it is to be expected that there should be many workers. A great many of the foremost archaeologists are not diggers, except in the discoveries and minds of others, but even when a list of the actual "dirt archaeologists" alone is assembled it takes on huge proportions. Digging for relics of the past is a fascinating sport, and many men of means have indulged in it, occasionally to the benefit of science. It has also been a leading interest of the great museums and scientific institutions, and their archaeological staffs are large.

The list of diggers here appended, therefore, does not pretend to be complete, or even to present the most important members of the clan, for this is a field in which rank would be hard to judge. Perhaps he had better put the matter on another basis entirely, then, and say that these are among the most interesting of the American men who dig:

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ALFRED VINCENT KIDDER. (*Chairman of the Division of Historical Research, Carnegie Institution.*) Tall, heavy-set, blond, frosted with gray, Dr. Kidder is one of the real leaders in American archaeology, and was one of the outstanding diggers in the Southwest from 1910 to 1929. Since 1930 he has directed all of the Middle American (Mexico, Central America) work of the Carnegie Institution.

He was born at Marquette, Michigan, and took his degrees at Harvard. Many persons mistake him for a New Englander. He is extremely jolly, always popular, and part of his success in his present work is due to his ability to smooth ruffled temperaments and get teamwork out of individualistic and short-tempered scientists.

His experiences have been varied—one is his flight over Yucatan with Lindbergh. At the start of the war he enlisted, but was called before a board of doctors for a mental examination because the sergeant who filled out his papers marked him down as a mental case. It came out at the hearing that he had merely tried to explain to the sergeant what an archaeologist did. When the board gravely passed him, he was put in charge of the trenches in one sector possibly in view of his knowledge of digging. Later he was decorated for bravery and made a *Chevalier of the Legion d'honneur.*

He is very proud of his large family of boys and girls, but his interests run to archaeology, even when on vacation. He developed many of the methods used in learning about the prehistoric peoples of the Southwest in part through his studies of the natural processes at work in preserving present-day relics. One of the favorite stories told about him by his colleagues—it may be apocryphal—is that he was once arrested by a village constable for vagrancy while loitering around a local dump. He was quite unable to make the officer believe that he was merely studying the way trash accumulates.

JAMES HENRY BREASTED. (*Director, Oriental Institute of the University of Chicago.*) Professor Breasted is undisputedly one of the world leaders of the "classical" archaeologists, and is America's foremost authority on the ancient Egyptians and the early civilizations of Asia Minor.

Elderly, with a rather ministerial air, he directs the largest organization ever developed for historical and archaeological research. Breasted was one of the most ardent early exponents of the theory, now pretty well established, that the focus of European civilization, of which ours is a part, was the land-bridge which connects Africa and Eurasia, at the western end of the Mediterranean. There the Babylonian-Egyptian peoples, some 4,000 years before the beginning of the Christian Era, discovered writing, mathematics and metals. These discoveries gradually diffused in all directions through the barbarous peoples surrounding them, passing by way of Crete to Greece, then to Rome and finally to Europe, where the spread of the culture was stopped for centuries by the Atlantic. The culture also passed eastward through Persia and over into China, where the eastern branch developed independently for centuries, until in recent times world commerce linked again the two offshoots of the ancient Egyptian-Babylonian civilization.

Only one other such independent nucleus of civilization ever existed in the world, Breasted has pointed out. On the land bridge that connects the continents of North and South America, under conditions somewhat resembling those of ancient Babylonia and Egypt, the spontaneous New World Culture appeared about 1,000 A.D., five or six millennia after the center in the Old World became established.

The "classical" archaeologists, or as Breasted prefers to call them, the "Orientalists," bridge the gap between prehistoric Stone Age man in the Old World and historical times. The Oriental Institute was founded to systematize, stimulate and organize that work, and is today one of the most powerful forces in the field. At present Breasted directs and presides over some eighteen or twenty field expeditions, extending from Turkey through Syria, Iraq (ancient Babylonia and Syria), Persia and Palestine to Upper Egypt. The staff now numbers about 150 people.

His interest in archaeology dates from the days of his boyhood in Rockford, Illinois, where he was born in 1865. In one of his books, *"The Conquest of Civilization,"* he tells of being present at the site of ancient Armageddon when one of the University of Chicago expeditions was excavating the famous battlefield in 1926. One excavator dug out a block of stone bearing Egyptian hieroglyphics, which when deciphered were found to relate to the conquests of Shishak, a Pharaoh of the Tenth Century B. C.

"Instantly," wrote Professor Breasted, "there rose before me a vision of a Sunday school in a little church on the far-off prairie of Illinois, where nearly a half century ago a group of village boys with their heads together over the Bible were struggling with the different proper names of an old Hebrew chronicle:

" 'And it came to pass in the fifth year of King Rehoboam that Shishak, King of Egypt, came up against Jerusalem, and he took away the treasures of the house of Jehovah; and the treasures of the King's house; he even took away all, and he took away the shields of gold that Solomon had made.'

"It was with some emotion that one of those boys was reading the name of the old Egyptian conqueror who carried away Solomon's treasure from Jerusalem nearly 3,000 years before."

After graduation from the Chicago Theological Seminary, Breasted studied at Yale and abroad. A distinguished teaching career at the University of Chicago followed, salted and peppered with important archaeological expeditions. He became director of the Oriental Institute when it was organized, in 1919. The idea for the Institute was his, and he succeeded in enlisting the financial aid of John D. Rockefeller, Jr. The main argument for the organization is that various groups here and abroad, working independently, by various methods, pursuing different lines of reasoning, can never bring order out of the woefully complicated chaos of the beginnings of civilization. The Oriental Institute unites under one direction experts not only in archaeology but in related sciences, such as anthropology, paleontology, geology, botany, and even the history of medicine and biology. Moreover, it studies the problem as a whole, and makes permanent records from perishable relics. One of the most notable jobs in this line was the transcription of the famous Coffin Texts—the messages written in and on the coffins of ancient Egyptians. Thanks to Dr. Breasted's work, these texts will be preserved for all time for scholars, regardless of what happens to the originals.

His son, Charles Breasted, followed in his father's footsteps and is now a recognized archaeologist in his own right.

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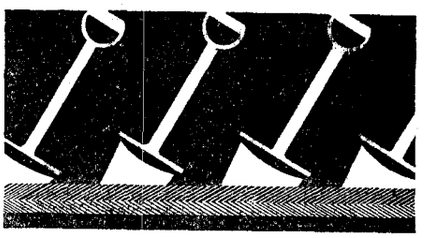
NELS CHRISTIAN NELSON. (*Curator of Prehistoric Archaeology, American Museum of Natural History.*) This Americanized Dane, who came here as a penniless orphan boy of sixteen, nearly forty-five years ago, introduced and developed methods now taken as a matter of course in the archaeological work of the American Southwest. One of these was a way of determining cultural evolution in a deposit, such as a dump-heap, in which there are no clearly marked stratifications. Nelson's method is to record carefully the relative position of all relics, such as bits of pottery, and later to use the data relating to their frequency to plot the growth of the culture. A great deal of what is known about the history of the prehistoric Southwestern peoples—precursors of the Pueblo Indians and others—has been learned through the application of Nelson's method, and could not have been determined, probably, without it.

Nelson likes to tell how, when he came to this country, the elevated trains of New York were still being pulled by steam engines. He was unable to speak English, so he had to stay close to the Battery, where he landed, until someone helped him find the train that was to carry him to relatives in Minnesota. There he was urged to study for the ministry and went to California for that purpose, but theological doubts rose in his mind; he forsook the ministry for philosophy, then accidentally came upon some articles about archaeology which changed the course of his life.

His first archaeological expeditions were in the San Francisco Bay region. Since then he has worked all over the world, including many parts of the United States, Europe, Mongolia and China. He is shy, quiet, retiring, methodical. Archaeologists know him as the world's worst pessimist. He is modest in discussing his own work; says he just happened to be the first to stumble onto his methods. He is scrupulously honest in classifying and identifying his finds, and will not exploit them for publicity.

During one of the famous Andrews expeditions to the Gobi Desert he made an impression on the Mongol tribesmen they are not likely soon to forget. On occasion the tribesmen would gather about to see what the white men were up to, and the latter amused themselves by showing off some white man's magic. They played a



phonograph, lit a flashlight and worked some other minor miracles. After a while the tribesmen ceased to be astonished, even amused.

"I'll fix 'em," remarked Nelson. Whereupon he uttered some magic words, turned his back, and suddenly swung around again—with his left eye in his hand. It was a glass one he has worn for many years. The tribesmen gave a shriek, performed the Mongol equivalent of crossing themselves, took to their horses and never came back.

EARL HALSTEAD MORRIS. (*Research Associate of the Carnegie Institution.*) Morris is one of the best "dirt archaeologists" in the country. His work in the Southwest has been important, but he is best known for his spectacular restoration of the Temple of the Warriors in Chichen Itza, Yucatan, possibly the finest job ever done in New World Archaeology.

He came by his interest in Southwest archaeology naturally, having been born at Chama, New Mexico, forty-five years ago. He is short and wiry, has a red mustache and red hair, beginning to be streaked with gray. His mechanical ability is considered practically superhuman by his colleagues; it has stood him in good stead not only in restoring old structures but also in piloting an ancient Model T Ford through the Southwestern desert. He has driven it over many a trail where some people would hesitate to follow with a burro.

On one occasion, when the brake bands of his car burned out miles from a garage, he took off the transmission cover, removed the old bands, and made a new set out of bacon rind. They were not quite as good as the genuine article, but they got him home safely. He is always tinkering, trying to find a better way to do things, such as develop a new type of glue for the restoration of pottery, or figure out some more efficient method of hooking up pulleys and cables so that he can use a truck to do the heavy work of removing the sterile top dirt from a site.

His greatest joy, however, is just to start out somewhere with a shovel and dig for specimens. Nearly always gets them too.

ALES HRDLICKA. (*Curator of Physical Anthropology, United States National Museum.*) Hrdlicka, who pronounces it Alesh Hertlitshka, is the Grand Old Man of American anthropology. His colleagues differ as to the value of much of his work, but they all agree that he is a character. For twenty years he has stood, like Horatius, at the theoretical Land Bridge which presumably once spanned Behring Strait and has maintained that there were no really ancient Americans. One claim after another he has examined and overthrown. "Ancient" skeletons in his hands are shown to be only a couple of thousand years old at the most, if indeed they are not modern. His influence undoubtedly has had a sobering effect on American archaeologists, many of whom wish to speak in terms of millennia about every jawbone which they uncover. It has made them proceed cautiously; one may therefore take it for granted that the newer claims for man's antiquity in America are based upon pretty sound evidence.

He was born at Humpolec, Bohemia, sixty-six years ago. He came to the United States ambitious but penniless in 1882—truly penniless, for the story is told that as the ship pulled past the Statue of Liberty he cast overboard a few copper coins, the last traces of his cash resources, in order that he might enter the new country literally without a cent. Later he was graduated from two medical schools in New York, and went to Paris to study anthropology.

In 1899, as a young anthropologist already becoming known, he published an article asserting that American anthropologists needed a national center, an institution where specimens could be stored and compared, a library and a laboratory. This attracted the attention of officials of the U. S. National Museum, and Hrdlicka was invited to establish the Division of Physical Anthropology. His first laboratory was a table, chair and inkstand. At the beginning the Museum had no anthropological material. Now it has a skeleton museum containing the bones of more than 1,500 human beings, with full records in each case of the race, age, sex, nationality, occupation and probable cause of death. The collection also contains hundreds of

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specimens, many unique, of human and animal brains.

Hrdlicka's technical reports on physical anthropology are generally considered to be of high value, but there is a difference of opinion on his archaeological work. Some of his colleagues maintain that he lacks basic knowledge of fundamental archaeological precepts, and complain that he apparently isn't the least bit concerned about reading up on the subject. At the same time he is rated as a sincere, earnest and tireless worker. He has become well known to newspaper readers because he is a colorful writer and has the knack of presenting things in a way which makes them seem of tremendous importance.

Hrdlicka was one of the early exponents of the theory that America originally was settled from Asia. He made an expedition into Asia and found there types closely related to the Indians and almost exactly like the American Esquimeaux. His recent digging has been done in and near Alaska, particularly on Kodiak Island, which should have been, he reasons, a logical stopping place by the way for the repeated waves of Asians entering America. In the last two or three summers he has unearthed several prehistoric camp-sites, filled with relics of Asian immigrants and replete with signs of violence as newer invaders drove the old from their strongholds and probably forced them southward into the new land.

Unfortunately, none of the sites so far discovered goes back very far—certainly not to the Ice Age. This is one of Hrdlicka's most powerful arguments for the non-existence of man here in those times. It has been pointed out by some of his colleagues, however, that the Behring Strait route was not the only possible one; men may even have reached the Americas through the south seas. Pending the discovery of skeletons of some of the reputed Ice Age men, this argument probably cannot be settled.

Hrdlicka has been twice married, the second time in 1920. It is his firm belief that woman's place is in the home; women are the chief pivots of human relationships, he says, and their first duty is to their homes and families. He hints that past civilizations have fallen out of joint when their women obtained too many privileges. He is a square-built, stocky man, speaks with a trace of foreign accent, likes baseball and sports generally, also music. He gets most of his clothes abroad, doesn't believe in wearing an overcoat and recommends heavy woolen underwear, two suits if necessary.

SYLVANUS GRISWOLD MORLEY. (*Associate in American Archaeology, Carnegie Institution.*) Another one of the first-rank men in American archaeology, well known among his fellow-archaeologists, but seldom noticed by the press. Morley is fifty-two, short of stature, thin, blond and wiry. He is extremely excitable, and is said to be so near-sighted that when he misplaces his glasses he cannot see until they are found.

One of the tales related of him deals with a geologist in Yucatan, who one day came upon a queer party, consisting of several Indians who were leading a burro on which sat a dejected-appearing white man. Stopping the procession, the geologist went over to the man, and found it was Morley. "Are you in trouble?" he asked. "No," Morley is said to have replied, "Not at all." "Then what is this procession about?" "Oh—I lost my glasses back in the bush, and hired these Indians to lead me to an eye-glass fitter."

His greatest work has been done at Chichen Itza, where he has been in charge for several years. He is primarily interested in the Mayan glyphs, has done much towards solving the riddle of the Maya calendar. He gives the appearance of frailty, but has tremendous physical resources, has survived attack after attack of the fever. Some say he never enters the jungle without getting it; physicians have warned him that the next time will be his last, but he always fools them. He goes into the jungle nearly every year, and when laid low with the fever recuperates at his home in Santa Fe, New Mexico.

He speaks Spanish fluently, and makes himself understood anywhere in Middle America, but his friends say it isn't very good Spanish. One Mexican anthropologist, when questioned about Morley's linguistic ability, said: "Oh, yes, he speaks very well, very well—half-Spanish and half-Morley, but very well." He is passionately fond of music, and takes a phonograph and records with him in the bush. On one occasion his life and those of his party were saved by his phonograph. The outfit had been captured by a group of renegade natives. Morley gained the interest of the leader by playing his phonograph all night. In the morning he made the bandit chief a present of the machine, and the entire party was allowed to leave unharmed—or so the story goes.

GEORGE CLAPP VAILLANT. (*Associate Curator of Mexican Archaeology, American Museum of Natural History.*) Tall, dark and Bostonian, Vaillant is considered one of the best of the archaeologists working in the Mexican field. He comes by his Boston manner naturally, having been born there thirty-four years ago. His degrees, including a Ph.D., were taken at Harvard.

He began as a field assistant with the Peabody Museum expedition to the Southwest in 1921 and 1922, following it up with a place in the Harvard expedition to Egypt in 1923 and 1924. He was at Chichen Itza with the Carnegie group in 1926, and has been digging in Central America and Mexico ever since. He is thorough and careful in his work, but often presents his results in intricate formulas which give his colleagues a headache trying to figure them out. These reports contain everything, however, and when once mastered are invaluable for reference work.

ALFONSO X. CASO. (*Director of the National Museum of Mexico.*) Typically Latin, suave, entertaining to talk to, extremely courteous, Caso sprang into international fame in 1932 when he announced the discovery of a veritable treasure-house of Mexican antiquities at Monte Alban, 200 miles southeast of Mexico City. He is regarded as one of the best archaeologists ever developed in Mexico. Men interested in Mexican archaeology recognized his ability long before the Monte Alban finds.

Monte Alban is a hill 1,200 feet high near Oaxaca, Mexico. It overlooks a fertile valley, and apparently is honey-combed with the tombs of ancient peoples. More than 400 have been located, though only a few explored so far. Before the Spaniards came, the valley was occupied by two warring groups, the Mixtecs and the Zapotecs. The two peoples apparently fought continually for the possession of Monte Alban, which occupied a commanding position and had religious significance.

It was in Tomb No. 7, so named because it was the seventh explored, that Caso found the richest collection of

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relics. The tomb itself was Zapotecan in style, probably was built by them. But the skeletons buried in it, those of priests, were Mixtec. With them was a collection of jewels and ornaments dazzling enough to make a pirate jealous; the Mexican archaeologist salvaged a heap of objects in wrought gold, precious and semi-precious stones and obsidian, exquisitely fashioned. The discovery has been called the richest archaeological find in North America, and has been likened to the discovery of King Tutankhamen's tomb in Egypt. These statements give a somewhat exaggerated notion of the importance of the find, but it is nevertheless true that until Caso's work practically nothing was known of the ancient Mixtec culture. The tomb was about 1,000 years old.

Modern Zapoticans still live in the valley near Monte Alban, and are rather peevish about this despoilation of their ancestral tombs. They have added a touch of adventure to the Mexican archaeologist's work by sitting around in their villages with loaded rifles, occasionally taking a pot shot in the direction of the hill by way of caustic comment on the science of archaeology.

BARNUM BROWN. (*Curator of Vertebrate Paleontology, American Museum of Natural History.*) One of the world's foremost bone hunters, Brown may be numbered among the archaeologists because it was he who did most to call attention to the Folsom Man as a distinct and very early type of American. This was in effect a by-product of his principal work, which is paleontology. He has exhumed the skeletons of more dinosaurs than any other man. There is hardly an important museum in the world which does not have a skeleton or so which Brown discovered.

Born at Carbondale, Kansas, sixty-two years ago, Brown has pursued an enthusiastically active life. He once turned down a $20,000 a year job as an oil geologist to continue his career as a bone-digger for the American Museum of Natural History, where he gets considerably less than half as much. One of his chief enthusiasms is his new technique of hunting for dinosaurs by airplane. Queer as this may sound, it is an effective and economical method of locating likely places for dinosaur remains. From the air, large sections of the country can be surveyed rapidly, and the geological formations are quickly revealed to a practiced eye. Places where digging would be likely to yield results are marked on the map, and given personal attention afterward.

Last summer Brown made the most spectacular dinosaur find of his career —about a dozen beauties, all grouped around the remnants of a waterhole which dried up 30,000,000 years ago. The excitement it caused gave the Wyoming rancher, on whose land the skeletons were found, some exaggerated notions of their value. He tried to collect, and when this failed, brought suit for $25,000. Of course, dinosaur skeletons have no intrinsic market value whatever; museums spend thousands of dollars to recover them simply for the new knowledge they may yield. But it is sometimes hard to explain that to a cowman.

The Folsom find was a fluke, but a sufficiently important one to gain Brown a place in the hall of fame of American archaeologists. His friend, J. D. Figgins, able director of the Denver Museum, showed him some unusual leaf-shaped stone points he had discovered in 1926 in the bank of a dry creek near Folsom, New Mexico. Brown was greatly stirred by Figgins's description of the site and made arrangements for an expedition to Folsom the following year.

The place on excavation proved to have been an old water-hole, probably at the bend of a long-extinct creek. A number of skeletons of a pre-historic type of bison were found, several of the leaf-shaped points and traces of a fire, which looked as if it had been kept burning for several days to dry meat jerked from the bison. All this was buried under several feet of wind-blown silt, and was undoubtedly very old. Knowing the skepticism with which evidence of really ancient man was being viewed by American scientists, Brown called in by telegraph a group of distinguished savants, and had them out to inspect the artifacts as they lay when uncovered. It was this move that gave his discovery such authenticity, for the other witnesses agreed with him as to the apparent age of the find.

As Brown re-creates the scene, the site was the location of a kill, in which a band of the prehistoric Folsom hunters ambushed a herd of bison, brought down a number of them and jerked the meat for their winter supply. The points found with the bones were either broken or lost by the hunters. It is Brown's surmise that this early hunting scene took place between 20,000 and 30,000 years ago.

FRANK H. H. ROBERTS, JR. (*Archaeologist of the Bureau of American Ethnology, Smithsonian Institution.*) This tall, quiet, thirty-seven-year-old Ohioan last summer added the latest chapter to the saga of the Folsom Men when he discovered, partly as a result of an article he had written for *Literary Digest,* what apparently was a genuine campsite of those ancient Americans.

Exploratory work at the site, located in northern Colorado, disclosed last fall that it covers nearly a quarter of a square mile and yields many of the characteristic leaf-shaped points that identify the Folsom culture. Roberts plans to resume work there this summer, and hopes to obtain some definite information about the kind of men the Folsom hunters were. The Folsom layer is buried about twenty feet under the silt of the Colorado plains, in the foothills of the Rockies. Much dirt will have to be removed to reveal the relics. The archaeologist hopes there will be a burial or two there, also. A skull would probably settle the question of the origin and relation of these men to the Stone Age peoples of the Old World.

Roberts was one of the experts called in by Barnum Brown to verify his original exhumation of Folsom remains in 1928. At that time the Smithsonian archaeologist was already noted for his work on the ancient peoples of Colorado, New Mexico, Arizona and Texas. Aside from his recent Folsom find, he is best known for his work in the Southwest. Last summer he bossed a crew of CWA workers in excavating Indian mounds on the old Shiloh battlefield in Tennessee.

He received his education at Denver University and Harvard, and began his career as Assistant Curator of Archaeology at the Denver Museum. He was a member of three archaeological expeditions of the museum, in 1921, 1923 and 1924, the second of which he directed. He joined the Smithsonian Institution in 1926, and has been in charge of its Bureau of Ethnology expeditions since 1927.

SAMUEL KIRKLAND LOTHROP and H. B. ROBERTS. These men are linked together through a spectacular discovery, recently announced, which they made

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jointly four years ago on the Rio Grande de Coclé, a river in western Panama about ninety miles south of the Panama Canal. A shift in the river bed caused it to cut through an ancient cemetery, revealing the golden relics of an entirely unknown Central American culture. Three years of excavation at the site yielded an almost unprecedented harvest of finely wrought gold ornaments, and an excellent picture of the barbaric and cruel burial customs of these prehistoric Panamanians.

The expedition was made under the auspices of the Peabody Museum of Harvard University, though neither of the chief participants is regularly connected with Peabody. Lothrop is a free-lance archaeologist of considerable experience and ability. He is forty-three, born at Milton, Mass., educated at Harvard. He has an intelligent and accomplished wife who sometimes serves as his secretary and publicity manager, and also occasionally co-signs popular reports of his work. Lothrop is extremely keen, works hard when he works, and when he takes time out for recreation plays just as hard. He is particularly noted for his archaeological work on Costa Rica, at Nicaragua and among the Indians of Tierra del Fuego. He has been connected for short periods with half a dozen institutions, but prefers free-lancing and frequent change.

Roberts is the younger brother of Frank H. H. Roberts, and is regularly on the staff of the Carnegie Institution of Washington. He was loaned to Peabody Museum for three years for the Coclé job, then Carnegie called him back to resume his regular duties at Chichen Itza, in Yucatan. Lothrop took over the Coclé work and finished it.

FAY-COOPER COLE. (*Chairman of the Department of Anthropology, University of Chicago.*) A man who already has had world-wide experience in the digging field, Professor Cole is to have the privilege this summer of cutting into an untouched archaeological melon that many an Americanist would like to excavate. It is one of the largest of the Indian mound sites, known as the Kincaid Mounds, thirty miles northeast of Cairo, Illinois. For three generations the Kincaid family, owners of the property, consistently and vigorously refused archaeologists the right to investigate the site. Now it has been purchased by an anonymous friend of the University of Chicago, and has been turned over temporarily to the Department of Archaeology to explore.

The people who built these and other mounds in the Middle West belonged apparently to one phase of the "Lower Mississippi culture," a group thought by some investigators to have been related to the highly developed Indians of the Southwest cultures. The untouched relics of the Kincaid Mounds ought to help considerably in clearing up uncertainty about the mound builders. Preliminary excavation carried on late last summer demonstrated that the mounds and the nearby flats abound in relics.

Cole, a short, slender, dapper man, has done some digging in the Southwest, but is better known for his work as leader of the Field Museum expeditions to British Malaya and the Dutch East Indies in 1922 and 1923, and his studies of Philippine ethnology.

VLADIMIR J. FEWKES. (*Research Associate of the University of Pennsylvania Museum.*) Short, dark, argumentative and extremely enthusiastic in his work, this thirty-four-year-old Czecho-Slovakian is one of the foremost authorities on the prehistoric peoples of his native country and of Central Europe, and has successfully headed several joint expeditions of the University of Pennsylvania Museum and the Peabody Museum of Harvard University to that region, turning up a wealth of material covering the old and new Stone Ages, the Bronze Age and the beginnings of the Iron Age, almost a complete series from the earliest to the latest men.

He was born at Nymburk, Czecho-Slovakia, but came to this country a dozen years ago and has received his collegiate and post-graduate training here, at the University of Pennsylvania. Fewkes is an Americanized name, his Czecho-Slovakian appellation having been quite unpronounceable. He is said to have taken the names Fewkes after the late J. W. Fewkes, who was chief of the Bureau of Ethnology of the Smithsonian Institution at the time and one of the Grand Old Men in American archaeology.

ALBERT ERNEST JENKS. (*Director of Archaeological Field Research of the University of Minnesota, Chairman of the Department of Anthropology.*) During the last few years Professor Jenks has made several interesting finds which he believes date back to glacial times. One was the skeleton of a girl who had apparently been drowned in an old post-glacial lake, her body being subsequently covered by several feet of silt as the lake filled. This find was widely discussed in the newspapers as "The First American Tragedy," for there was some suspicion that the young lady had been forcibly drowned, or had been killed by a bash on the head before being tossed into the lake.

As to the age of the skeleton: it was covered so deeply that there seemed little doubt of its antiquity. There was a suggestion that the girl represented a race that antedated even the Folsom people. Jenks, in describing the skeleton in *Science,* official organ of the American Association for the Advancement of Science, said that it represented a type "suggestively more proto-Eskimo than proto-Indian." The nasal openings, he declared, showed a distinctly simian "sill" and indicated a closer relation to the apes than modern skulls.

The more recent of Professor Jenks's discoveries was "Brown's Valley Man," found last summer in a Minnesota gravel pit under conditions that caused the archaeologist to believe the bones and associated chipped stone points to be very old.

For some reason these finds made a greater impression on newspaper writers than on scientists. The "American Tragedy Girl" and the "Brown's Valley Man" are seldom mentioned when archaeologists get together to discuss the antiquity of man in America, and Professor Jenks has sometimes been considered over-enthusiastic about the antiquity of his discoveries, but may be proved right when the evidence is all in. He has been good copy, and has done a great deal to stir up popular interest in America's earliest settlers. He is sixty-five, a native of Michigan, obliging and pleasant, and a firm believer in the importance of the material he has turned up in his home state.

JAMES EDWIN PEARCE. (*Professor of Anthropology, University of Texas.*) Professor Pearce recently broke into prominence with the discovery of man-made implements buried eighteen feet underground near Round Rock, Texas. The discovery was witnessed by Dr. E. H. Sellards, Professor of Geology at the University of Texas, who explained that the

(*Continued on page* 61)

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Economic War Reports

Compiled by Edward H. Collins

American Front

AS A NATION which increased its exports last year by 27 per cent while its imports were rising 14 per cent and its favorable balance of trading going up to $478,000,000 from $225,000,000 in 1933, the United States, one might think, could afford to lie back on its haunches and preen itself over its success in selling goods in a highly competitive world. And from the way the Administration put its foot down on the cotton barter deal with Germany, blocked another cotton deal with Italy and broke off negotiations abruptly with Soviet Russia for a debt settlement and a credit, it might appear that the United States was willing to rest on its laurels. But a closer inspection of the manner in which the Washington officialdom was tearing around, still trying to settle on a consistent trade policy, lent conviction that there were some misgivings over the soundness of the American position in world markets. That these misgivings were not unwarranted was shown by the fact that the volume of all farm products exported in December was but 62 per cent of the last five years of the pre-war period, that grain shipments were only 16 per cent of the pre-war average, that ham and bacon shipments were down to 15 per cent, that cotton shipments were merely 74 per cent of the pre-war December average and that tobacco, ranking second only to cotton in export importance, dropped to 87 per cent of the pre-war figure. To the south, Brazil was making giant strides with its cotton industry; to the west, China was making great progress with its tobacco production. Small wonder, then, that Secretary Roper advocated the creation of an international board to allocate as between one country and another the world's output of raw and finished goods and sent Oscar Johnston, cotton pool manager, abroad to study foreign market conditions.

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Brazilian Front

OF ALL THE COUNTRIES producing raw commodities for export, the particular favorite of fortune now is Brazil. As the Brazilian cotton crop assumes a place of increasing importance in world markets, with the present crop of 1,250,000 bales to be followed by one of about 2,000,000 bales, the rest of the world is climbing on the Brazilian band-wagon. American cotton dealers are getting a toehold in Brazil and are dismantling American gins, made superfluous by the AAA restriction program, and sending them to Brazil to be erected. American banks, realizing the primeness of cotton shipment credits, have ordered representatives to Brazil to arrange for the handling of part of this financing. Brazil has been blessed far beyond the United States with lands suitable for cotton growing, for the soil there needs no fertilizer to give a yield twice as big as the average in this country; and, moreover, Brazil has no boll-weevil. The financial mission, headed by Finance Minister Arthur de Souza Costa, reached a trade agreement with the United States and took ship for Europe, there to discuss trade treaties with France, Great Britain, Germany, Italy and Spain. Within a few days after the trade agreement was signed at Washington, the Second Export-Import Bank swung at once into action and helped the American Locomotive Company to sell $300,000 worth of locomotives to the Sorocabana Railroad, owned by the State of Sao Paulo. Also, the Brazilian government reduced from 80 to 35 the percentage of export bill proceeds which shippers had to deposit with the Bank of Brazil. Brazilian exports in January were 5.5 per cent more than those in January, 1934.

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Russian Sector

THEY ARE NOW SAYING that even that fledgling nation, Soviet Russia, has scored a victory in the economic war over the United States by promising to place large orders for goods in this country (a promise, so the story goes, which the Kremlin never intended seriously to keep) in return for recognition and a debt settlement. Whatever the merit of this theory, the fact remains that, after recognition here, the Soviet found other countries in abundance which suddenly became willing to sell goods to it on terms considerably less stringent than those "Yankee traders" at Washington demanded. First came Britain, and now quite recently three other countries have come to terms with Russia. France, a far larger creditor of the old regime in Russia than the United States ever was, has agreed to lend the Soviet government up to 1,000,000,000 francs for the purchase of French goods, and in these negotiations the old debts were disregarded. They are to be a matter for separate discussions. The Russians have said that they would use 100,000,000 francs of the loan to buy aviation material and another 180,000,000 for the purchase of equipment from the bankrupt Citroen automobile concern. Germany has drawn up a plan to extend a new 200,000,000-mark commercial credit to the Soviet, of which the German government will guarantee 70 per cent. The third country to bring trade negotiations with the Soviet to a successful conclusion is Holland. Promptly Russia placed an order with Netherlands shipbuilders for two motorships of 3,500 tons each.

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Far Eastern Sector

JAPAN is proving a most difficult trade problem for the United States. Last year, for the first time, Japan sold more textiles than the United States did to the latter's colony, the Philippines. Japanese sales to Colombia, long an American trade preserve, quadrupled in 1934 over the previous year's figure, and Japan has been an extremely important factor in stimulating Brazilian cotton production. Japanese cloth imports into the United States increased more than 600 per cent in 1934, and the Japanese economic suzerainty over Manchuria, formerly a first-rate Amer-

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ican market, has been steadily increasing, causing the National City Bank to decide to close its Mukden branch. And yet Japan imports more than twice as much from the United States as it does from any other country. The trade volume between the two countries in the first eleven months was virtually unchanged, totaling 917,631,000 yen, against 915,925,000 in the previous year. But these totals hide the fact that Japanese imports from the United States in this period were 589,726,000 yen last year, against 490,360,000 in the first eleven months of 1933, whereas this country's purchases from Japan amounted to only 327,905,000, against 425,565,000 in 1933. If the United States set out to recapture from Japan some of the finished goods markets it has lost, it might find its sales of raw materials curtailed. Here is a problem for the silver lobby at Washington to ponder: In 1934 Chinese imports declined 30.7 per cent in spite of the fact that this country's silver buying program caused the price of silver to increase 125.8 per cent. It will be recalled that the silver lobbyists explained that foreign sales to China would grow as its purchasing power, as determined by the price of silver, increased.

British Front

ALL THINGS have come at once to give the economic and financial situation in Britain an adverse turn. Speculation in several commodities has gone sour, the boom in government securities has ended with unfeeling abruptness, the revenue deficit has risen to £48,000,000 or twice what it was a year ago; and unemployment in January increased about 70,000 more than the seasonal amount. The Federation of British Industries sums the situation up by saying that the prosperity phase of the present short run business cycle appears to have run its course and that this year efforts probably will be increasingly directed to measures for public works and devices of an inflationary monetary character. This forecast, blunt in its realism, is of moment because, shortly after it was made, sterling subsided to a new record low against the European gold currencies. Simultaneously, the British Treasury has been rejecting all overtures for currency stabilization, which may give point to the expectation of a lower sterling rate in the interest of British export trade. The busting of speculative bubbles took place in the peanut, pepper, shellac and Australian gold shares markets, to the accompaniment of much indignation over the number of prominent people interested directly or indirectly in the speculation. The moral that is being drawn from these incidents is that cheap money, of which there is such an abundant supply in the United States, is not much help in stimulating trade but renders a prime service in rekindling speculative fires. The trade rapprochement between Britain and the Irish Free State has been widened and strengthened.

German Front

DR. SCHACHT MAY BE, as used to be said of him, the best equipped economist among the world's top-flight bankers, but it is now obvious that this praise was spoken of him before he became Herr Hitler's Economics Minister. His program of attempting to force every country to buy from Germany as much as Germany buys from it had the following results in January: Imports into Germany amounted to 404,300,000 marks, the highest total in nearly three years; the 104,900,000 unfavorable trade balance was the largest since 1928, and exports decreased to 299,400,000 marks, a low figure not equalled since the closing years of the last century, except during the war years and the subsequent inflation. This daring economic policy was directed principally at the United States, and it is to be observed that German imports from this country were reduced 70 per cent last year. So drastically were German purchases from the United States cut that, toward the end of the year, for the first time on record, Germany was actually selling more to this country than it was buying. Dr. Schacht, though, has not succeeded in budging the United States from its traditional triangular trade theories by one inch; when he embarked on this policy he did not reckon sufficiently with the character of him who holds the portfolio of Secretary of State at Washington. Were Mr. Peek in Mr. Hull's chair the chances are that Germany's terms would have been met. To make matters worse, Germany has had to make concessions to those countries which are its best customers, as, for instance, the Irish Free State, which bought £2,250,000 from Germany in 1934 while selling to it only £135,387 worth.

French Front

BY LOOKING behind the value of a country's foreign trade into the tonnage, one can see how much currency devaluation means. Secretary Morgenthau told the Senate Agricultural Committee a few weeks ago that the outstanding feature of trade in 1934 was the decline in the trade of gold-bloc countries in contrast with the marked increase in the countries which did not adhere to gold. He said that the exports of France declined 4 per cent. The figures show that French exports decreased 652,000,000 francs in the year, but the tonnage of exports, leaving out of consideration changes in price, increased more than 3,000,000 tons. With a franc of lower gold value, this tonnage showing could have been translated into a highly respectable value showing. So many governments have claimed during the Depression that they could not adopt the necessary emergency and relief measures because of a refractory parliament. It is otherwise in France. Premier Flandin's control of the Chamber of Deputies is unquestioned, but his financial policy is running up against determined opposition among the financiers. He has denounced the "big interests which do not dare to fight openly but which conspire to create difficulties." M. Flandin was able to oust M. Moret as governor of the Bank of France and appoint M. Tannery in his stead.

Italian Front

THE SABER which the bold Mr. Mussolini has been brandishing at Abyssinia is surely made of steel which Italian economy cannot otherwise use. The 1934 trade figures show imports 200,000,000 lire higher in the year and exports 700,000,000 lower, giving an adverse trade balance of 2,433,000,000 lire, against 1,441,000,000 lire in 1933. In January the number of unemployed totaled 1,011,711, an increase of 50,006 in the month. Though the budget is still heavily unbalanced, Italy is steadily resisting all suggestions that the political accord with France be cemented with a loan. Italy has begun to force the conversion of the foreign balances of its nationals to strengthen the Bank of Italy. Rome is strengthening its influence over its wards, Austria and Hungary, by establishing "culture centers" in Vienna and Budapest. The culture to be dispensed is, of course, the Italian brand.

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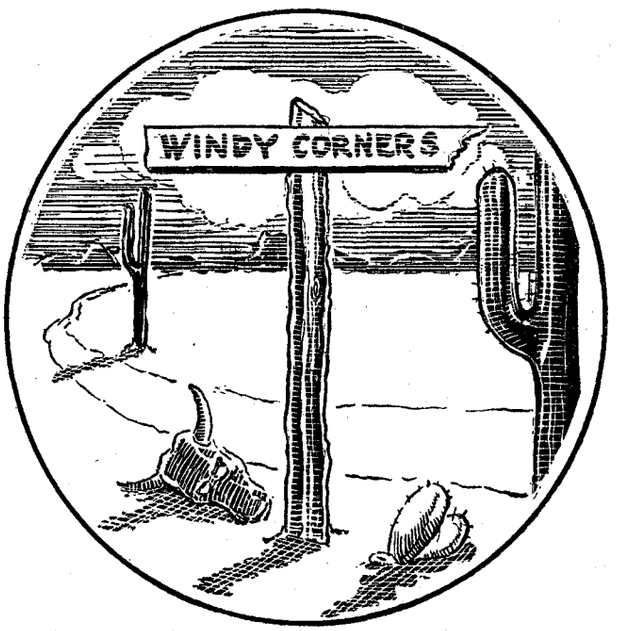
Unexpected Cities



by Arthur Edwin Krows

Unnoticed in the rush of larger world movements, wheel, wing and other advancing devices of the Machine Age have been creating dozens of new communities over the map. This article examines the reasons for their rise and possible fall.

YOU SIP YOUR MORNING COFFEE, glance at your watch to make sure that you still may reach the office on the well known dot, and turn again briefly to your newspaper. You notice news items about doings in Locarno, Little America, Manchuokuo, the Chaco, the Galapagos Islands, Addis Ababa, Bangkok and the Gobi Desert, are disappointed to find so little that you didn't know before, throw the pages aside and hurry away for your daily stint.

It might disconcert you, however, to realize how very recently you became acquainted with Little America, the Gobi Desert and the rest of them. You knew their names long ago in your wider reading, but only a few winters ago they were just names. In the interval, too gradually for your own awareness perhaps, you have been building up associated ideas about them. Today they rank in your consciousness for the first time as real places —as actual as the cities and towns in your own everyday experience.

Extraordinary forces have joined to bring this about, and there is no doubt that they may be identified with recent developments of the Machine Age. Take the radio. When Admiral Byrd prepared to leave Antarctica last month, he was saying farewell to a land that to all intents and purposes was the same bleak wilderness in which Commander Robert Falcon Scott struggled heroically, and lost, upwards of twenty years ago; and yet it was not the same—that is, to the thousands in the more habitable parts of both hemispheres who were listening in to the final account, broadcast over short wave from the very scene at the actual time of departure. Little America was not then just a vague position where the pivot goes for turning the terrestrial globe in the library.

But the producing causes are not confined to radio. They are all recent developments of the Machine Age taken together, including also those in aviation, the automotive field, communications, talking pictures and other miscellaneous improvements in news collection and dissemination. One wonders, perhaps, how the automobile could possibly serve in a situation connecting that icy waste with home across the oceans. Nevertheless, the

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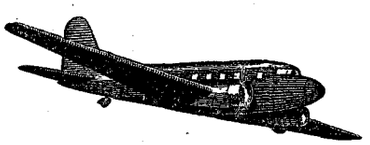
motor car is markedly present in the whole complex influence which even now is slowly changing the modern human consciousness of the world.

The telephone, in its familiar home aspect, had nothing directly to do with the final Byrd broadcast either; but the magic of that instrument, through which and with no more exertion than a couple of steps across the living-room floor, one may talk with Tasmania or India, Ethiopia or New Zealand, to ships in the air or in mid-ocean, in deep mines or under the sea if need be, lends character and proportion to every other otherwise unvisited country, city, village, humble outpost and person on the network.

If Antarctica remains essentially unchanged, it will not be so for long. There probably is nothing



—place, person or thing—that is left the same after having once been touched by this late, multiplied influence of the Machine Age.

One of the most interesting phases of the matter is what the Machine Age is doing to the map. The completely up-to-date map is remarkable for neither new countries nor changed national boundaries, but for unfamiliar place names, and, particularly, for old place names which formerly were not to be found on any of the general projections. When one looks closely, it is observable that the Farmer still lives in the Dell, but the Dell is now the scene of a flourishing community, with a chamber of commerce, a women's club, a de luxe theatre, three banks, half a dozen chain stores and a Scout movement.

School geographies of 1925 or thereabouts, designed in part to familiarize future citizens with the up and coming towns, paid virtually no attention to Wenatchee and Ellensburg in the State of Washington; Kingman and Winslow in Arizona; Coffeyville, Kansas, or Mandan and Dickinson in North Dakota; and while it may be that the finicky cartographers still will question the right of these places to appear on the maps that hang in the travel agencies of Europe, the confirmed fact remains that they are now stations on leading American air lines, facing a bright future which their founders could not possibly have anticipated.

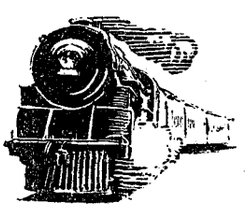
On the Airways

FOR that matter the recent school books gave only a distant bow to Wichita and Albuquerque, rapidly growing cities from which air routes now radiate like spokes in a wheel. Cheyenne, Wyo., just another cow town earlier in the century, is today an important station on United Air Lines, boasting the world's largest air maintenance depot with some 400 aviation officials and engineers. By the same token of recent progress, Rochester, Minnesota, has come to vie in the news with Rochester, New York, and at least three American Springfields, in Illinois, Missouri and Ohio respectively, have found Machine Age strength to bedevil, by their frequent mention in the news, the proud residents of an older Springfield in Massachusetts.

New York City, N. J.

TWO Alexandrias, one in Minnesota, the other in Louisiana, have taken the airplane route to a fuller public attention than was enjoyed by the famed Alexandria of the ancient Hellenic world. But of all the phenomena of diverted public interest by this method, none is more striking than the rise of Newark, N. J., which today is more important, aeronautically speaking, than the huge metropolis spreading over and about Manhattan Island, which it serves. It is not news that Mayor Fiorello LaGuardia has undertaken to check the rivalry.

His difficulty is large but not uncommon. Alameda, Calif., figures on the air schedules as "same as Oakland." Winslow, Ariz., so persistently obtrudes its position as the most convenient air stop to the Grand Canyon that there is a movement afoot to change its name to something that will not eclipse the fame of the Great Groove of Nature. The air traveler alights, as he thinks, at many a city of venerable dignity and years, only to find himself miles away under a signpost indicating a settlement that he never knew existed before. As a matter of convenience, the transportation company probably has printed his proper destination on his ticket, leaving it to a waiting bus to shuttle him thence; but the harsh fact is that he is not yet there. It took Mayor LaGuardia, arriving at



the Newark Airport, not so long ago, to insist on a literal reading of his ticket and so to continue his plane journey to a North Beach landing within New York City limits.

But if the older cities are fighting against being swallowed by small upstart communities, there is no lack of aggressive spirit in the favored places. Their chambers of commerce are strident in their bids for airports; and in instances to be found conveniently by any citizen, when a station on a regular line is not obtainable, they will promote fields for private flying in the hope that some day the regulars will be coaxed in. In the persistence of this attitude may be some recollection of what Wichita accomplished when its chamber of commerce several years ago adopted the slogan "Cross-

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roads of the Air" and did its go-getting under that new version of the ancient "Temple of the Winds."

The movement is one that is bound to dislocate the older order, and it is happening everywhere. The new cities, instead of occurring in just one progressive area, are coming into existence around the globe. Nor are they merely in the countries that one likes to call civilized. They are taking root in remote places, the mountains, deserts, frozen wastes and jungles of the earth. Airways now regularly traverse Alaska, India, Burma, Arabia and Siam. One may book bus trips from Johannesburg to Nairobi, and there is an annual bus safari lasting twenty-five days each way, from Cape Town to Cairo—through the heart of that same Darkest Africa where Livingstone and Stanley pioneered. Nairobi, by the way, has in the past six years or so, increased its white population to 4,000 souls.

Such growth, evinced by literally bales of printed schedules for buses and planes, is, of course, just normal 20th century development. One finds like symptoms upon returning to any old home town. Also, aided by newspapers, magazines, talkies and radio, there has been working up a popular suspicion of world material progress. Soon after the noble Balto made his dash with serum to Nome, the devastating whisper spread that he had crossed the romantic land of Robert W. Service on a highway lined with telephone poles and dotted with road houses. There have been, too, those disconcerting pictures of trolley cars on the streets of Mombassa. In such circumstances one just naturally expects to find the tombs of the Pharaohs lighted by electricity and funicular railways jiggling tourists up and down the slopes of Fujiyama and Vesuvius.

Primary Causes

THIS further manifestation of the Machine Age is primarily another double wave of its two most vital factors, transportation and communication. First came the railroad and the telegraph, next the automobile and the telephone, and now airplane and radio. To be sure the older ones have not dropped out. The new devices spring up, one beside another, each quickly catching the pace of the earlier innovations and all presently swing along together. While the airship evolves as the magnificent liner of the skies, the old railroad acquires Diesels and streamlines; the multi-passenger automobile rises past the antique designation "omnibus" to become the luxurious high-powered drawing-room on wheels.

A striking feature of this general latter-day progress is its speed. As it goes on it acquires an unprecedented momentum. The time interval between strides becomes shorter and shorter. In as little as three or four years one may now see a whole countryside altered to fit a new scheme of living, whereas a generation back one could wait from youth to old age for any change as radical. The fact explains why these cities have appeared so suddenly, and also why this whole present phase is so extremely different from any that have been revealed before.

Basic inventions come into being and grow to perfection, serving in a tentative, limited way until that day when they reach their full powers. Then they enter upon a more elevated life, producing completely unanticipated results. That is what the recent engines of the Machine Age, acting in concert, are doing in the matter of these new cities.

Just Happening Now

THE point that the total effect is frequently greater than the sum of small achievements may be seen with a single broad invention. The automobile is convenient. It has, as every school child knows, opened remote places to urban benefits. But the original Rambler, or Pope-Hartford, or Oldsmobile of 1901, could, if multiplied sufficiently, have accomplished that particular end, at the same time that it could not now give the nation the spiritual, character-building contributions of the modern motor car.

America has had the effective airplane since that tremulous December day in 1903 at Kitty Hawk. In the interval from then to now, it has made amazing advances in the science and engineering of human flight. But the first real proofs of its much touted powers to annihilate time and distance belong to the latest half dozen years. On the other hand, practical transcontinental telephony dates just from 1925 and the commercially operative radiophone tied in with Shanghai and the interior of China only on February 8 of the current year, so all they have given the world thus far is an increased velocity of business; but there are signs that they will importantly promote international good will. It is not war alone which puts even the routine affairs of Europe, South America and Asia on the front pages of American newspapers.

What technological advances have done and are doing to our national psychology is another story. Beside, such states of mind are only reactions to the physical changes which come first, and the present situation is in its infancy. But there is an inspiring place to stand, between recent inventions and their unguessed full effect, a threshold from which airplanes, motor cars, telephones, radios, motion pictures and all the other proved mechanical factors of this fourth decade of the century, are beginning their entirely new type of social service. Astronomers may be thrilled at the cold and distant sight of new worlds in the throes of birth; but surely that is as nothing compared with the intimate, human delight of seeing new cities taking their places on the globe.

The same speed that brings these modern Cities of Overnight into being may wipe them out just as fast, or at least cut short their illusions of grandeur by leaving them nearly as they were, forever after dissatisfied through their glimpse of an unfavorable contrast. Flagstaff, Arizona, has a poignant story to tell of such merely tasted glory, having been ever so briefly a stop on a transcontinental air-

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line and then ignored. Who knows but that some as yet unknown invention may bring it back?

Certain Cuban cities may commiserate with Flagstaff. When Pan-American Airways flew overland through Cuba, the charming mid-island community of Camaguey in the heart of the sugar plantation country and dominated by the best of English society, became a "new city" discovery to many American travelers. Santiago, remembered by most Americans solely for its part in the war with Spain in '98, also enjoyed a brief and bustling period of prosperity as an over-night stopping place on the same cloud route.

When the Air Route Shifts

THEN, through the exigencies of airway contracts and a decision on the part of Colonel Lindbergh and other technical advisers of Pan-American Airways to make the West Indian air service largely a flying boat, instead of a land plane, operation, Camaguey and Santiago were abandoned and the wreath of attention was arbitrarily transferred to Cienfuegos on the west coast of Cuba.

Failure of a girder on the *Akron* during the dirigible's practice flight off the coast of California, has just resulted not only in a tragic plunge into the sea but a decision by the U. S. Navy Department to abandon its air bases at Sunnyvale and Lakehurst. Both those places, surrounded by the resorts, service stores and general accommodations encouraged to settle over a period of time by congregations of persons thought to be permanent, must now try as best they can to lower their scales of living and go back to what they were—if they can.

Usually the reason for such changes is the simple fact that a straight line between two points is the shortest. By eliminating irregularities in the route the service as a whole is improved. The airplane and the bus have that advantage over the railroad which enables them, within moderate license restrictions, to change their courses instantly. There are no roadbeds to tear up, no private rights of way to be purchased. And if on their second try they find that the first is better after all, they may conceivably go back to that.

Straight lines are preferred. But one cannot always realize an ideal in this world. The bus that climbs the mountain is glad enough to turn and twist upward with the serpentine road that makes ascent less difficult; it does not turn amphibian and churn through the lake on its way to the town on the far shore. The airplane would seem free of these obstacles. Nevertheless, even that does not necessarily follow the direct line. There are prevailing winds and safe lanes to consider. And above all, there are long established cities with stations too important to be treated in such cavalier fashion as to be passed by just because they are forty or fifty miles to the right or left.

It is the city of that venerable sort which points the way to the future of these new communities. For real cities do not just happen. A small community may arise in some desolate place because it is expedient for the railroad or the bus or the plane to stop there; but if that is the only reason for its existence, its outlook shows little hope of value in its properties. Should the transportation line shut down or veer to another quarter, this struggling community would be sure to go.

Sad lessons of boom cities are known to many parts of America. John Law's historic "Mississippi Bubble" that nearly wrecked Europe centuries ago, was an American boom town project. Still standing are the so-called "ghost towns" of Mark Twain's mining days in the West, with the curious Machine Age twist of a hope of renewed glory in the introduction here and there of better machinery for reclaiming from the discarded ore of the shovel, pick and tin pan era, the "gold in them thar hills." Florida, sadder and wiser for its recent high flush of prosperity, is finding its present healthy developments along sounder lines; and forced feeding by the NRA has proved in various instances that simple starting is not enough to establish a city if there are no other natural forms of sustenance. It is much to be feared that such considerations will determine the future of Boulder City, that interesting Colorado town preëminently created by the Machine Age.

Along the Hudson, on both shores above the Highlands, and more tragically still, for miles upon miles along the reaches of the Mississippi, are dead and dying towns sacred to the memory of the once proud inland steamboat. Residents vaguely hope for some happy metamorphosis of the old craft, some transformation that will make it comparable with the swift clipper of the skies; but until that daring dream comes true they hope in vain.

Cities That Survive

INTO the news at intervals comes word of the discovery of ancient cities. As recently as February 11, the University of Pennsylvania Museum announced the unearthing of one in Northern Mesopotamia estimated to be 5,700 years old, which, if authenticated, would place it as the oldest whole town on the records. Apparently this metropolis was so far forgotten that the archæologists who resurrected it did not even know its name. In the same general area, the valley of the Tigris and Euphrates, are remains of hundreds of other forgotten towns that thrived centuries ago and not since because their excuses for being are ended.

But while Babylon and Nineveh have departed this life, Antioch has not. A modern city remains on its site. Think also of Athens and Rome. Why should these differences be? Why should the Mayan cities of Yucatan fall prey to the voracious jungle and Mexico City of the Aztecs remain? The specific answers are known, and they all resolve to this: A city's longevity and strength are in direct proportion to the vitality and force of its peculiar service, and Antioch, Athens, Rome and Mexico City have been vigorously sustained.

New York City is not where it is nor as

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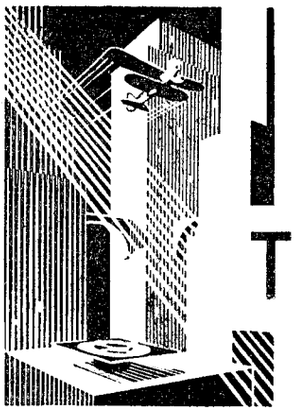

Talk of the Nation

Progress Reports

ON FREE LUNCH: After debate and due deliberation, the Senate of the State of Wisconsin has drawn up and passed an act which defines what shall henceforth comprise the lunch which legally can be given away free with a ten-cent glass of beer. Cheese, crackers, pretzels, popcorn and cured fish were the only comestibles to win the Senate's approval. Hot dogs and fresh fish went down to defeat before spirited debating and the final vote.

ON DRAMA: George Bernard Shaw has been "drafted" (through his published works) by the Union of Socialist Soviet Republics to collaborate with William Shakespeare and Alexander Pushkin (both deceased) to produce a play, on the love life of Cleopatra, which will be acceptable to Marxists.

WE WERE naturally considerably upset to receive, on January 28th last, from the *"Office of the Assistant Vice-President,"* the distressing mimeographed information that "the Bank of Manhattan has notified the various Government agencies that the securities listed on the attached sheet have been lost or stolen." The "attached sheet" revealed that, among others, U. S. Treasury Notes 5612 and 5613 have been misplaced by the bank. They're both for $100,000 each.

Sixty pieces of rather valuable commercial paper in all were included in the report of loss, the total coming to quite a pretty penny. It seemed, at the time, very distressing to us—for a whole day in fact. Then in the next morning's mail there came also from the *"Office of the Assistant Vice-President,"* of the Bank of Manhattan Company the following:

"NEWS ITEM FOR IMMEDIATE RELEASE. The Bank of Manhattan Company has today received 175 boxes of gold—$4,500,000—from Paris."

Nice of France, what?

A RECENT VISITOR to New York, Dr. Marie Charlotte De Goliere Davenport, who claims to be 110 years old, indirectly challenges the accuracy of one of Walter Pitkin's best selling ideas. Life she says—at least it did for her—really begins at 61. That means that the Professor is off by twenty-one years. Dr. Davenport was first married at the age of 18, had two husbands and eleven children. Her second husband was killed on the hunting field. As she explained it, to a reporter of the *"New York Sun,"* after that event, "I then went to Vienna, where I lived for many years in obscure gentility, until one time when I was over sixty, I looked in the glass and saw a fat, stiff dumbbell." Dr. Davenport, who subsequently got her Ph.D. degree when she was 81, attributes the initiative for an active career to that one look in her mirror.

FAITHFUL FOLLOWERS of this department may recall that sometime ago we dipped into the fascinating science of Astrology. We attempted, in our humble lay fashion, to outline the theory and practice of the art of finding out about the future. Our outline was necessarily brief, since the subject is just about as vast as anything you could possibly look into. Qualified astrologists spend years on one branch of the subject, and regard themselves as gifted if they can learn enough to make an honest living out of it. But lately we have been devoting our time to more study, and we can announce new discoveries——just communicated to us by one of America's leading practitioners of the mystic art.

This gentleman has discovered, so he tells us, just what is at the bottom of material and financial success. It is Saturn, the ringed planet, and nothing else. (For a time, it was thought that some of the other planets had something to do with it, but this is now disproved.) He controls the whole business of your career, from the cradle to the grave. Hard work, luck, the right connections, marrying the boss's daughter—none of those good old-fashioned recipes for success count a nickel's worth any more, compared to Saturn.

This powerful old planet is particularly strong in the first thirty years of your life. For example, if you are one of those young men or women "discouraged concerning the slowness of the progress you seem to be making in achieving your occupational goal," Saturn is bound to be at the bottom of it. If your plans go astray, "if every board you pick up turns to sawdust in your hand, if every word you speak in attempt to win recognition (especially in the case of orators, ministers, lawyers, etc.), is as unwelcome as though obnoxious hop-toads were leaping from your mouth; if every serious thing you say is ridiculed, every humorous thing is sneered at," the same old devil-planet is to blame. And conversely, when you do get that raise, when your friends stop laughing because the waiter unloads a little French on you, when your girl finally stops refusing your dates, it's Saturn again—finally turning nice for your benefit.

Because, you see, Saturn is really a "disciplinary patriarch, also the kindly

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Father of the Prodigal Son who, when that son has finally realized the stupidity of his original plans, the fatuousness of his original hopes, which consisted only of desire for luxury and adulation from his untalented compeers, will be only too glad to welcome him back into the paternal Household." All his previous meanness, it seems, has been just a test and a training period for you, to find out whether you have the right stuff or not—Saturn, it seems, really wants to know, before showering you with success. And have no doubt that the success will come, for (to quote again) "every horoscope definitely shows success somewhere, sometime; there is no horoscope that does not show this." Simply wait, knowing that those who despise you and belittle you now are really "the unwitting agents of Providence, or more particularly the agents of Saturn, and are helping you."

Now as a layman, we don't like to comment on this—we merely wish to pass on the information for your use and comfort. But it does seem to us like dangerous doctrine. If everything is up to Saturn, what becomes of that good old self-reliance we used to hear about—and still do, for that matter? What's the use of struggling or striving any more, if Saturn is just waiting (particularly during the first thirty years, when struggles are supposed to be at their height) first to sit on your every plan and project, then, still without consulting you, to make them all come true? You might just as well sit back and wait, confident that everything will come out all right when your kindly old patriarchal planet makes up his mind about you. It resembles all too closely that dangerous habit of sitting around and waiting for the Government to do something. That, we know, is rapidly undermining the morale, stamina and everything else of the American people. It is a sad thing to see Astrology, which at first we were able to describe as the purest and most incorruptible of sciences, joining hands with this kind of subversive philosophy.

Bridal

THIS BRIEF TALE comes from one of our leading psychoanalysts—a member of that brotherhood which specializes in healing the mentally and emotionally sick. One of his patients, after some weeks of treatment, announced her impending marriage. She had chosen a fellow-sufferer whose case was quite as acute as hers. Unfortunately, her intended did not seem to relish the match. In fact, he threatened to shoot her if she succeeded in manœuvering him into it.

Against all professional advice she went ahead with her plans, and since her intended was if anything slightly more neurotic than she, she had her way. The day of her marriage she telephoned her doctor to tell him about it. The doctor asked if she was happy. "Oh yes," she answered; "except my husband, he's—well—wait a minute, maybe you could talk to him." The doctor, somewhat alarmed, agreed and spoke soothing words to the bridegroom for some minutes. Finally the bride took up the transmitter again. Her voice was strong and confident. "Thanks doctor," she said. "You did just the right thing. While you were talking I got the gun away from him."

Caution

A RECENT QUERY to the Scripps-Howard Question and Answer Service (1322 New York Avenue, Washington, D. C.), as to how many Marines were killed in Nicaragua brought the cautious answer *"about* 161," which reminded us of the dilemma which recently befell a harassed telegraph editor of a metropolitan newspaper, who prided himself on the preciseness and accuracy of his far-flung corps of space correspondents.

One of these free-lance correspondents in a small New England village he had not heard from for several months when one night, just as the newspaper was about to go to press, there was dropped on the telegraph editor's desk the following breathless, flash bulletin from the obscure correspondent, Joe Doakes:

"Northbound New England-New Hampshire Express in head-on collision here with fast through freight, killing between forty-eight and fifty people. DOAKES."

Whereupon our editor friend, after the fashion of editors, hit the ceiling with the explosive query to his assistant editor, "You don't suppose that dumbbell could possibly mean that forty-nine people were killed?"

News At Sea

AN ACQUAINTANCE of this department's, an expert radio engineer by profession and by avocation a dabbler in that field of earphone activity which keeps the amateur up until all hours of the night, tells us that a few evenings before the end of the Hauptmann trial he was listening in on what the short waves were saying in code. Sandwiched in between a lot of highly uninteresting chatter, he heard broadcast, "to all ships at sea," a high pressure sales talk from one of the world's largest news-gathering organizations. This news organization makes a regular practice of broadcasting each morning, for a price, a concise report of the news of the world, to ships on the high seas for use in ship news bulletins. The special sales talk was to the effect that for a special price the news service would broadcast, immediately upon its return, the verdict in the Hauptmann trial. "Otherwise this news will not be sent until the following day in our regular news broadcast. Send your orders in now."

Our friend was unable to tell us how successful this threat of suspense really was. He only knew he didn't hear any orders coming in—and he listened most of the rest of the night.

Mud Experiment

THE FOUR SACRED BOOKS of the Brahmins are Rig Ved, Vajur Ved, Sham Ved and Athar Ved. What is called "Ayurvey Shastras," or Medical Science, is to be found in the Atharva Ved. (We didn't know this either until we received a few days ago a rather distressing report from Bahagwan Raja Debi Prassad Missra Bish mi Shareer, descendant of the Purohit of Lord Bhagawan Sri Krishna in Patna, India. Patna, by the way, is a division of Bihar and Orissa which are divisions of British India—population 5,635, if you're really interested).

The reason why the descendant of the Purohit of Lord Bhagawan, who has been dipping, maybe a little too much, into the medical section of the Four Sacred Books of the Brahmins, wrote to us, and at considerable length too, was to tell us about the results of his mixed diet of clay and mud. It doesn't seem to be working out.

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In the preamble of his complaint to us Missra says parenthetically, but it seems significantly, "In some persons the back portion of the brain is little developed," which may or may not be self-revelatory. He then continues:

"I have continued to eat clay for nearly three months and still I am living. There were three sorts of clay—White Mud, Red Mud, and Clay. White mud I ate about two maunds in weight, red mud ten seers, parched clay about 19 seers, Potassium Chloride 1 lb.

"I have still a craving for eating clay and I feel I can't live without eating it, but 'mud' I can't eat any more; I failed in my experiments of it, though I wished to keep on mud and milk for two months.

"I was eating about two pounds of parched clay daily, and this is how I failed. On the 15th day, the liver began to slow down and stopped—altogether for two minutes. I felt I was dying. I tried to run up for Chloral Hydradates, but in that condition I could not remember that the liver thus stimulated works for a time only. Naturally, I gave up clay-eating and adopted the usual vegetable meal, when the arteries began to shatter. I looked to the arteries and to the heart, whether they were functioning at all. I then proposed to take sugar-cane juice, but that was not available.

"With my knowledge of psychology, courage, will-power I looked to the brain, and yet I was again inclined to eat clay. But I feared that—might weaken the liver totally for life. The arteries worked on slowly—till evening and the liver worked less. At present I am in this condition. I have gone through such trials during last eleven years."

For those who might be inclined to follow Missra in his diet of White Mud, Red Mud and Clay with the indicated dash of Potassium Chloride, there is disappointing news in a printed postscript which accompanies his communication. It warns: "This theory is only for the kings, and not for the use of Presidents!"

Books

(*Continued from page* 10)

without over-arguing it, and write so lightly that he suggests more than he attempts to prove. Text-book history, the doctor believes, attaches too little importance to germs and too much to generals; by the time he has completed his clinical record of the cases in which an epidemic on one side or the other decided a battle or a war, a layman tends to agree with him. This demonstration, together with the fascinating account of The Black Death that almost destroyed European civilization, constitutes the main value of "Rats, Lice and History"—though some of the doctor's comments on modern literature and on the writing of his more pretentious colleagues could also stand by themselves. And his footnotes are delightful, the best I know; he ought to be persuaded to write another scientific work, composed entirely of these lively little footnotes to the first.

After a history of typhus, the history of a war correspondent may seem pretentious; "Personal History," however, largely because it is mostly history and little personality, is an exceptional book. Vincent Sheean seems somehow to have been nearby whenever trouble broke out on an international scale: he saw the German Revolution, the fascist triumph in Italy, the defeat of the Chinese revolution in 1927, and just about all of the major post-war crises. When you finish his book you automatically ask, "where is he now?" feeling confident that war or revolution can be expected there at any time.

A sort of wandering lightning-rod, Mr. Sheean seems to have accepted his fate without regret; he examined the world crises that exploded around him with a studied unwillingness to make snap judgments and a rare inability—rare among war correspondents—to be content with superficial explanations. He also seems to have been emotionally immunized to the great tragedies and triumphs he observed; they did not leave him cold, but they apparently did not greatly excite or distress him; mostly they left him troubled, uncertain, unwilling to form decisive opinions about them, and on his way to new adventures that followed him everywhere. Egon Kisch, on the other hand, traveling rapidly through Tajikistan, Uzbekistan, Turkmenistan and other little-known areas on the fringe of Soviet Russia, was given to ups and downs at every mile of his journey—some sights filled him with a candid excitement and enthusiasm, others made his blood run cold. "Changing Asia" is a lively travel book, a little dated now, since the journey took place in 1931 and Kisch informs the reader regularly that the whole scene will be changed in another six months. It is a work of non-fiction, but some of the characterizations could stand alone as fine little short-stories, and some of the accounts of the Civil War are melodrama at its best and most exciting. One long section, dealing with the birth, mating and death involved in the process of making silk, ought to be studied as a model of poetic and yet fundamentally exact observation. Compare Herr Kisch on the love life of the butterfly with Mr. Samuel Rogers' fictional account of the love-life of Katherine Wilder in "The Birthday" (Little, Brown) and decide which can properly be called a work of the imagination.

Historians are searching in out-of-the-way places for their material: R. C. Grane, in "Foreign Bondholders and American State Debts" (Macmillan) has made an exhaustive survey of all the financial obligations that our various state and territorial governments, in times past, have quietly not paid. There is a curious quality of academic humor in the book, since Professor Grane writes of the most staggering swindles in the most matter of fact and placid way. No book for fire-eating patriots, certainly, and particularly no book for professional Southerners—the Southern States, even before the Civil War, seem to have been especially bad about borrowing vast sums abroad (often by high-pressure sales method) and then spending all the money for candy.

ROBERT CANTWELL.

Battle of Wave Lengths

(*Continued from page* 27)

casting facilities even if their publishers had the desire and the money to obtain such stations. William Randolph Hearst is one of the few major publishers to recognize the value of broadcasting facilities and to make an attempt to acquire station properties. The fact that some publishers such as Mr. Hearst and Col. Robert R. McCormick of the Chicago *"Tribune"* have acquired broadcasting facilities only serves to sharpen the conflict on the part of those publishers who neither have, nor can obtain, such facilities should they be considered desirable.

This fight within the ranks of the newspaper publishers is apt to become more acute with the advent of facsimile radio, which will make possible the transmission of a complete newspaper

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by radio between the hours of midnight and 6 A.M. when the radio receiving sets are not ordinarily in use. Facsimile radio, according to the engineers who have been working on the problem, will make its appearance before the long-heralded television. It is now commercially practicable and its use depends upon the decision of the broadcasting companies to make the necessary investment in transmission equipment at this time, the education of advertisers to its value to insure its financial support, and the saturation of the consumer market for receiving sets with the current all-wave models before facsimile attachments will be added as a market stimulus. Observers within the industry estimate that it will take not more than two to three years to set all of these forces in motion sufficiently to introduce facsimile broadcasting as a reality.

Newspaper publishers who have set themselves up as the champions of free speech and a free press frequently point to the fact that radio cannot be free because it depends on a government license. A great deal has been made of the point in emphasizing the limitations of the radio as a medium for free speech. It is true that the government license does make possible a dangerous threat of subversive control and censorship, but the actual degree of freedom of speech which exists on the air depends, not upon these implications, but upon the fairness with which the licensing power is exercised. Freedom of the press, stripped of all its high sounding phraseology, implies in the last analysis freedom to publish (if you have the money) anything which does not conflict with the laws governing libel and other statutes maintained to protect the public interest. Freedom of speech on the air, under a Commission with a reputation for fairness equal to that enjoyed by the Supreme Court, might quite logically insure greater freedom within the bounds of public interest under a license than that now enjoyed by the press at the hands of those engaged in publishing newspapers.

Thus radio is forcing a change in our 18th century notions on freedom of speech, sacrificing at most the unbridled rights of the individual to the interests of the public as a whole. It may not be a concept which will be accepted quickly by those who thump the table with a copy of the Constitution of the United States at the slightest provocation, but it is a concept which has come to stay—one dictated by the public character of this new means of mass impression. To remove the feature of licensing control would be to invite complete chaos. Real freedom of speech, therefore, will not be guaranteed through the removal of such a restriction, but by public recognition of the necessity for non-political and non-partisan administration of the licensing power.

If the recent court decision in the State of Washington can be taken as an indication of what radio may do in the future to shatter long-accepted concepts of property rights, the bedeviled newspaper publishers might well be alarmed about that future. Judge John C. Bowen of the United States District Court dissolved a temporary order restraining Station KVOS at Bellingham, Wash., from broadcasting news collected by The Associated Press and printed in the local newspaper, and dismissed the bill of complaint drawn up by The Associated Press. Judge Bowen based his conclusion, holding that stations could broadcast news printed in the newspapers without restriction, on the fact that radio did not broadcast news for profit, and that *radio must be looked upon as a modern means of news dissemination which cannot be blocked for the protection of "private investment" in newspapers and press associations.* Radio, the judge said, is as superior to the newspaper for news dissemination as the airplane is to the railroad. Thus he reversed the old concept of the "property in news" precedents upon which The Associated Press is built, and upon which it fought its bitterest battle for life in the famous INS-AP news "pirating" case, which reached the Supreme Court in 1917. The Associated Press won its first skirmish against the "pirating" of its news by radio broadcasting stations when Judge James D. Elliott, of the United States District Court of South Dakota, upheld the press association's property rights in its news in an action against Station KSOO of Sioux Falls, S. D. Judge Bowen reviewed the KSOO case in announcing his revolutionary decision and concluded: "This Court finds itself respectfully unable to concur in that view." The Judge maintained that the press association's and the newspaper's property rights in the news end with its publication for public consumption, and that the radio station is performing a public service in disseminating the published news

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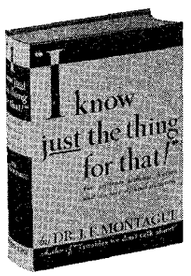

By DR. J. F. MONTAGUE

From the Contents

What Is Normal Function?
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through its facilities. Needless to say, The Associated Press has taken an appeal to a higher court.

Thus radio is becoming the strategic battleground for the sharp conflicts between scientific progress and a host of our oldest political, economic, cultural and legal concepts. This new industry has demonstrated an unusual capacity for surviving the plots of those who would throttle it through all the old paraphernalia of established rules and laws and principles laid down in earlier centuries to govern a world which never conceived of such an instrument for mass communication. It has grown steadily during the worst business depression of modern times and erected a gigantic technical and financial structure on the most tenuous promises to life by official sanction. Its greatest need is stability, which can come only through more tangible agreements among nations to settle the battle of the wave-lengths and through administration of the licensing power with longer periods of assured official life and a minimum of red tape and legal expenses. The problems of the radio industry are engineering problems and they can be solved far better by technicians than they can by the most zealous meddling of well-meaning politicians, or economists, or lawyers.

Radio

(*Continued from page* 10)

comedians will tell you, out of bitter experience, that there is absolutely no known way of predicting success or failure for a particular comedy line or situation. A gag or a piece of funny business that will go over big with one audience will be an absolute failure with another of apparently precisely the same make-up. What brings a laugh on Friday night's performance may fall on deaf ears and silent hands the next night. And, as comedians who have been on the road will tell you again, a belly-laugh in Pittsburgh may be less than a whispered chuckle in Montreal, or Ashtabula, or Chicago. There just seems to be no way of telling.

Which is pretty much as it should be, on the stage. Ideally the good comedian—Joe Cook is an illustrious example—will find a large part of his humor flowing out of the situation of the moment. To be sure, he has a script to follow, a plot or at least the semblance of a plot to keep in sight. He has a supporting company which must be more or less fitted into whatever he intends to do. The comedian must therefore act within a certain minimum routine or his show will be utterly formless. But given an audience to look at, to study and observe, both before he comes on and while he stands on the stage in front of it, the good comedian will observe a certain amount of discretion of his own. He can tell, from its appearance and from previous reaction, pretty much what this particular audience will enjoy. He can fit his stuff to the occasion. A comedian that wasn't able to do this, or who refused to work that hard, would be exiled from the stage in no time; the lack of applause at the end of his appearance would be positively deafening.

Unfortunately, the radio comedian can't do any of this—which is one of the reasons why broadcast comedy has been a first rank headache to him and his executive bosses almost since the art began. For one thing, he has no way of telling what the audience is thinking while the show is on. The virginal mechanism he speaks into gives no response to his most ardent wooings. For all he knows, his best arts and capers may be leaving his audience absolutely unmoved—may even be leaving it stiffer than it was when he started. And if he suspects this—we can imagine no more horrible suspicion overtaking any man—there is nothing he can do about it. The script cannot be altered while the show is on. He cannot drop one idea he feels at the last minute is no good in favor of another just conceived. Alterations, if there are any, must be carried out cold—that is, before the show begins. Radio technique will not permit anything else.

This rigidity is largely due to the iron laws of time that radio has imposed on itself. Each show, long before it goes on the air, has been plotted out in terms of minutes and even seconds. It cannot run either more or less than its allotted period. Orchestra cues must come at exact intervals. Advertising has its claim that must be met, otherwise sponsors would be justifiably furious. The next program is waiting just across the hall and come heaven or hell cannot be cheated of half a minute. With sixty or seventy stations in a national hook-up the degree of synchronization approaches madness. Technicians in charge turn

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gray at the mere thought of an instant's slip. The comedian, whose charm and success on the stage is due in large part to his appearance of ease and spontaneity, is caught.

Another handicap even more difficult to the radio funmaker is the fact that he must give a weekly show. On the stage, he can work through a whole season with the same set of jokes. Two thousand people at most will hear them per day. Radio's audience is millions; they must be provided with a wholly new diet each time the show goes on the air. It is this rule, perhaps, which has the most to do with the admittedly low quality of radio comedy. After all, there is only a certain number of jokes in existence. The supply of wit and comic situations does not stretch into infinity—least of all when the supply is turned to business uses. The result is obvious; radio comedy is now approaching a point where its jokes and funny stuff become increasingly tiresome, simply from the fact that they have been so often repeated. This sad truth is especially apparent in comedy shows that have been on the air for a considerable length of time. Almost every gag has been made, every potentially funny business exploited, and every week less remains that can be used.

Already a development in radio program structure just beginning to appear promises better things. This is the idea of running a program for two or three hours, rather than confining it to a half hour or one hour at most. If carried out, it will offer much needed variety in radio entertainment. The radio show, instead of being a brief performance where only one star can appear, will offer the same selection that stage shows now supply. It will be a tremendous improvement, and will make the entertainer's task easier and more grateful. After all, the best comedian on the stage does not attempt to carry the entire evening's work by himself. He has helpers and equals all around him—chorus, leading man and leading lady, singers, dancers and the like. When radio can lift the burden of solitude from the comedian, can find time to give him a supporting company and a real show to appear in, and thus improve and widen the possibilities of his laugh material, it will be able to give listeners a much greater reward for their time and patience than it furnishes now.—C. F.

Press

(*Continued from page* 10)

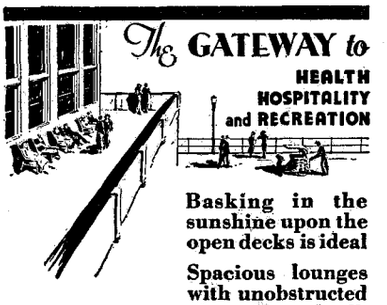
the month for American journalism and more particularly for the whole profession of gathering and distributing news occurred in the Flemington County courthouse the night the Hauptmann verdict was announced. It was an accident the force of which is likely to be felt long after it is forgotten that the American press overplayed the trial and displayed a form of bias which sets a destructive high-mark for journalism in the United States.

The accident was the direct result of over-eagerness on the part of the Associated Press representative to be the first to get the news of the verdict out of the locked courtroom to a presumably palpitating world.

In order to do this the A. P. correspondent used an experimental short wave radio set on which he intended to broadcast a code number to the working press room upstairs above the court chamber. From the press room it was relayed by telegraph. The *New York Daily News* employed the same device and successfully too. The code signals of the two competing pressmen were not the same. The operator on the receiving end of the A. P. set received the signal of the *Daily News*. In the light of his own code he interpreted this as meaning that the jury had found a verdict of guilty with a recommendation of mercy.

Now the ironic and important thing about this is that in ths old days, before radio began to compete with the printing press in the dissemination of news, this error would not have been so serious. Not many papers were on and off the press before the error was corrected. But the first and erroneous flash was taken from the Associated Press and cleared for national broadcast through Press-Radio Bureau, which for many months has been trying to maintain the truce between radio and the newspaper. The incorrect verdict was flashed to thousands of homes from coast to coast, and in many instances after this first news, radio sets were shut off for the night.

It must be borne in mind that the reports distributed by the Press-Radio Bureau are announced as the joint effort of the Associated Press, the United Press and Hearst's International News Service. The latter two organizations were both blameless;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with the radio listening public they seemed equally culpable.

The coöperative compromise which is Press Radio Bureau has not been altogether happy. There has been a whole series of minor incidents in recent months tending to a resumption of open warfare in news distribution between press and radio. The slip in the Flemington county courthouse may well become the *casus belli* in the next stage of the war.

Stage and Screen

(*Continued from page* 10)

"The Barretts of Wimpole Street" without Katharine Cornell; the counterfeiting mystery *"Laburnum Grove"* without Edmund Gwenn; Noel Coward's *"Point Valaine"* minus the Lunts; *"Escape Me Never"* lacking Elisabeth Bergner; *"The Old Maid"* without Judith Anderson and Helen Menken, or any other of a dozen more successes now enjoying runs in the metropolis without its present acting personnel.

After these remarks, the association of a new Sadie Thompson with the transcript of life in Pago-Pago entitled *"Rain,"* may seem a dangerous managerial experiment; but the Jeanne Eagels who created the role has gone long since on a tour beyond this world, and Tallulah Bankhead, who saunters cynically through the excellent revival, is a logical and satisfying successor. Miss Bankhead is not yet going on the road; and judging from the acclaim she has gained in this new venture, she probably will not entrain (or embark, for she is a great favorite in London, too) for some time to come.

Mistress Cornell was one of the first to test out the rumored blossoming of the No Man's Land under discussion, in sapping operations during the past couple of years, all of them eminently successful in the week stands of larger cities. Immense confirmation of her happy findings has just arrived in Marc Connelly's *"The Green Pastures,"* reappearing on Broadway February 26, which happened to be the fifth anniversary of the original production.

Another effort among the new plays in the highly speculative field of imagery is *"Noah,"* written in French by André Obey, adapted into English by Arthur Wilmurt and with Pierre Fresnay raised to stardom after two or three weeks as a merely featured artist. It is to be hoped that *"Noah"* will not die as a result of its Art with a capital "A." *"Three Men on a Horse,"* made of coarser fiber for the warmth of those who enjoy belly laughs, is an hilarious yarn about the fellow most of us know, who picks racetrack winners for his own amusement, but who in this instance, has his genius capitalized by a couple of professionals whose own systems never click.

A gentler comedy, but completely entertaining, is *"The Bishop Misbehaves."* Much of the humor arises out of the ingratiating, elderly performance of Walter Connolly.

Speaking of the films, they also have been continuing the trend toward the ancient virtues in the main, although the saccharine sentimentality of a new adaptation of Louisa M. Alcott's *"Little Men,"* presented under the same title, is almost enough to upset it. There is also a not wholly successful resurrection of Gilbert Parker's old novel, *"Translation of a Savage,"* starring the earnest but preternaturally troubled little Sylvia Sidney, called, possibly because of the cramped limitations of marquee signs, *"Behold My Wife."*

Maurice Chevalier has one of his usual gurgling, chuckling, winking parts in *"Folies Bergere";* Rudy Vallée is pleasantly typical in *"Sweet Music,"* with Ann Dvorak as an unexpected dancing partner; and there is a rather curious affair that seems somehow to have missed something in its attempt at satire or maybe high class burlesque, called *"Night Life of the Gods,"* direction credited to the late Lowell Sherman.

The new serious films include George Raft and Carole Lombard in *"Rumba,"* with cleverer dancing than acting, but Raft consistently cast for a change, and a very remarkable "nature" picture of devotion among animals, *"Sequoia."* Margaret Sullavan and Herbert Marshall in *"The Good Fairy,"* have an offering that is odd in another way, in the class called whimsical.

—A. E. K.

Men Who Dig

(*Continued from page* 47)

stratum in which new artifacts appeared was very old. He thought it likely that the effect of this discovery would be to push back the known age of man on this continent. This is a matter that must yet be decided by archaeologists who have specialized in

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the Southwestern cultures, and it is possible that a highly important find has been made. Professor Pearce has contributed a great deal to Texas archaeology from the standpoint of things actually found, but his colleagues have sometimes differed with him as to the interpretation that should be put on them. He is a Southern gentleman of the old school, born in Roxboro, North Carolina, sixty-six years ago, and an active and interested Texas archaeologist.

HERBERT JOSEPH SPINDEN. (*Curator of Ethnology, Museum of the Brooklyn Institute of Arts and Sciences.*) Dr. Spinden has long been one of the storm centers of Middle American archaeology. He loves to argue, and it is said that he will take any side of any question, just to get things going. He has a vast fund of knowledge at his tongue's end, but he depends a lot also upon the sheer physical force of his arguments.

He has done some of the finest work in the ethnology and archaeology of Mexico, Central America and South America, and on the correlation of the Maya calendar with European chronology. He is a large, heavy-set man, prematurely gray, fifty-five years old, a native of Huron, South Dakota. He has some interesting peculiarities, one of which is his fondness for spoofing the unwary. One night in Boston not long ago he had a bevy of debutantes listening in astonishment while he told them how the peccaries in Yucatan chase people up into trees and keep them there until they starve to death. He said the trees in parts of Yucatan are filled with skeletons sitting cross-legged in the branches.

He likes ginger, and used to eat it in hot weather "to keep cool."

WENDELL CLARK BENNETT. (*Assistant Curator of Archaeology and Ethnology, American Museum of Natural History.*) This young archaeologist has recently begun to break important new ground in his digging for the precursors of the Incas in South America. Last summer, on the shore and on islands in Lake Titicaca, high in the Andes, he discovered remains of the Tiahuanaco Indians, members of one of the nations that later were welded into the Inca empire. Though only twenty-nine, Bennett has begun to acquire a good reputation in a field where most of the leaders are older men. He was born at Marion, Indiana. His post-graduate education was obtained at the University of Chicago, and one of his most important efforts previous to last season's work was as a member of the University of Chicago's expedition to Tarahumaras, Chihuahua, Mexico.

He joined the American Museum of Natural History in 1931.

WILLIAM SNYDER WEBB. (*Head of the Department of Anthropology, University of Kentucky.*) When the Tennessee Valley Authority began to make plans for damming up the streams in its area and creating lakes where there are now valleys, archaeologists were worried by the threatened loss of archaeological materials known to be located on and above the damsites. The Tennessee Valley region is rich in American antiquities, but in the normal course of events it would be years before money or trained man-power would be available to remove them under scientific conditions. Meanwhile, if the dams should be built exploration of many of the sites would be indefinitely, probably permanently, impossible.

At the suggestion of scientific groups, CWA men were assigned for the task of removing the relics of early Americans before it would be too late. The man put in charge of this work was Major Webb, and credit for the great success of the undertaking last summer goes chiefly to him. It was only his tireless energy and meticulous attention to detail which made possible the excellent outcome of the work.

His success as an archaeologist under such trying conditions is the more notable because it is a relatively late interest. The early part of his career was devoted to physics, and he is still listed as a physicist in *American Men of Science,* the scientists' *Who's Who.* He became associate professor of physics at the University of Kentucky in 1913, and head of the department in 1917. Two years later, at the age of thirty-seven, he switched over to anthropology, becoming head of that department at Kentucky. He had been interested in digging for a number of years previous to his public conversion, however: he developed it as a hobby while teaching physics. He became a Major during the War.

HENRY BASCOM COLLINS, JR. (*Assistant Curator of Ethnology, United States National Museum.*) A short, dark Southerner, who shivered through several seasons in Alaska to bring back the best knowledge of the sequence of cultures yet obtained from that region, Collins is quiet, unassuming, an omnivorous reader. Though seldom mentioned in newspaper stories or the press handouts from the U. S. National Museum, his work is considered by archaeologists to be of first-rank importance, and it has been said that without the data he obtained much of Hrdlicka's Alaskan work would be considerably less valuable. He was born at Geneva, Alabama, thirty-six years ago, and has been director of a number of important Smithsonian expeditions to Alaska, Florida, Mississippi and Louisiana. For relaxation he prefers to read, but likes the movies as well as swimming and fishing.

He Still Hangs Around

(*Continued from page* 35)

partment store. It has to maintain a dignified front, and doesn't (often) permit moving displays in its windows. So the puppets were merely hung up in their stages in tableaux. A few looked, none stopped. Later the same puppets went to a smaller store up the same street. They did their few minutes of action. Appreciative mobs pressed about the window and trickled into the store.

It is quite likely that puppets will find themselves more and more advertising commissions. For the small space they occupy, they exert a tremendous drawing power. They travel easily; they are versatile.

The coming of television will play into their hands. for the smaller the subject, the easier the scanning disc will always be to see it. In Chicago, Richard Trusdell had given a puppet program from the WGXF television station in September, 1930; Mme. Pinxy gave a puppet audiovision broadcast over W9XAO in connection with WIBO in August, 1931. Not until some months later did the London Marionette Theatre televise a show for the B.B.C. In December of last year Nicholas Nelson showed his puppets by a new television device which enlarged them clearly on a screen eleven by eleven feet.

If there were any question that newer mechanical forms of entertainment, audiovision and talking movies,

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will sound the death knell of the puppet, my last two paragraphs have answered it. They will step gracefully into their new shoes. But will the current spurt of popularity wear itself out? Will puppets propagate and propagandize themselves into bores? I think not, for two reasons.

In the first place, a puppet show is a very personal means of expression. It is best when it is the work of one man and his sympathetic subordinates. Sarg's shows, even coming from his studio when he had not a single finger in their making, have remained constantly Sargish. There are not many who combine in themselves the abilities of construction, dramatization, staging, artistry and showmanship necessary to become perennial puppeteers. Good people in this field will always be at a premium, and if the untalented enthusiasts persist, they will probably kill themselves before they kill puppetry.

Puppets won't die because of their variety. Let people grow tired of the sort worked by strings, there are always hand-puppets, rod-puppets, shadow figures and a score of types worked by various means from above, below, or on the stage plane, to be brought forward. Puppets may be tiny enough to pull by a baby, or so huge that they must be hoisted by cranes.

Exploiters will have to sit up nights to think through all the permutations and combinations of puppetry before they succeed in making the public tire; and before they get half through their schemes, they will run up against a lack of people equipped to be puppeteers.

Unexpected Cities

(*Continued from page* 53)

large as it is merely because Henry Hudson, an English navigator in the employ of The Netherlands, pronounced Manhattan an interesting place for settlement. One may say in all confidence that regardless of Hudson and Peter Stuyvesant and the lieutenant-governors sent subsequently from England, New York would still have become the largest city of the Western Hemisphere. It has the finest harbor facing Europe across the Atlantic; it commands the lowest crossing place along the Alleghanies into the interior of the continent through the Hudson and Mohawk valleys, and it controls, too, a direct line to Canada by the Hudson-Champlain route. All these natural features make it the logical corridor through which passes to and fro the commerce of the United States and the Old World; and, as such a marketplace, it becomes the nation's chief center of trade and finance.

Cities of New England owed their early prosperity to shipping, fisheries and cheap and plentiful waterpower to drive their factories. Of late years they have been deprived of their advantages in power by the proved potentialities of coal, oil and high tension electricity transmitted over long distances, making possible, for instance, the great heavy manufactures of the Lake Country in and around Detroit.

Steel is the well known *raison d'être* of Pittsburgh, but it has, too, other natural advantages in commanding the gateway to the Great Lakes and the West. Chicago is possibly the largest railway center in the world—also probably the world's greatest meat packing, grain and lumber market, being the chief commercial outlet for the agricultural expanse of the northern Mississippi Valley. The Twin Cities—Minneapolis and St. Paul—constitute the commercial gateway to the upper left-hand quarter of the United States. Served by eight or nine large railroads and situated at the practical head of navigation on the Mississippi, they command huge wheatfields and vast timberlands and mining areas.

There are cities built around prisons, old folks' homes and racetracks. The reasons are legion. Easy-going Mexican law and a race course made Tia Juana; American prohibition brought Juarez an unprecedented prosperity that since repeal is probably well on the wane; Hamilton and St. George in Bermuda, founded centuries ago for reasons that shine in the code of British respectability, now exist frankly for the tourist trade. Atlantic City, Virginia Beach and Newport share with Jacksonville and Miami a dependence on public disposition to play, although, while those in the north emulate Perserphone and die away in the wintertime, those in the south reverse the process.

Quaint aspects appear in the "invalid cities," where the chief asset is a sulphurous purging water or a therapeutic mud, a mountain elevation or an equable climate. There are "convention cities" like Asbury Park, N. J., and Chautauqua, N. Y., art colonies such as Peterborough, N. H., and Woodstock in New York and Provincetown, Mass.; there are rallying places for Dukhobors and Nudists; there are towns that flare up suddenly on the white hot fuel of publicity, like Flemington and Somerville, N. J.

In short, it doesn't matter very much what the leading reasons for a city are as long as they are good ones; and those interested in the subject of whether these new cities of the Machine Age will or will not stay put, may see from even the few samples named in this context that there is a wide choice of reasons. The important thing is to make sure that there are enough of them. It is proverbially dangerous to carry all the eggs in one basket.

Reviewing the lessons, one supposes that the first essential in a new city is to have place on a natural avenue. The greatest natural avenues in the movements of people over the earth have been the river valleys—the Valley of the Nile, the Valley of the Tigris and Euphrates. But where today are the teeming cities of Egypt and Mesopotamia? If the routes of tomorrow are to be so largely in the air with no serious regard for the old-time natural barriers, disregarding mountains and bodies of water, of what moment is the city in the valley?

Or what use is there in being on a natural avenue if the traffic doesn't stop? In the colonial period when the stagecoach trip from New York to Boston was four or five days, Bridgeport, New Haven and Providence had profits to glean from the passersby; but times have changed. The mid-west towns that feel good cheer because the transcontinental buses halt there to refuel and rest their passengers are likely to find themselves abandoned when straighter, wider land routes are engineered and higher-powered machines make so much more progress from sun to sun that they may choose their required stopping places fifty miles nearer the goal.

It is not just the national situation of the city that does the trick. The multiple blessings enjoyed in that respect by the City of New York would never sustain it if there were no Europe and no inland states; not if the tide of empire, instead of trending westward, went the other way; probably not if Napoleon had kept Louisiana instead of selling it to Thomas Jefferson in 1803. In other

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words, the force of surrounding circumstances is not to be minimized.

In thinking of these new cities of the Machine Age, one must not jump at conclusions merely because an unfamiliar name crops into view. Instance Kingston, Jamaica, where there has come into existence a highly important seaplane base in the trans-Caribbean airline; St. Louis, in Senegal, and Natal, Brazil, already celebrated as a popular landing place of planes from overseas. It may not be a new city at all in its own sight—only new to us.

There is Barranquilla, brought into the North American vocabulary by the giant air liners on the South American run that hit the place at the end of the hop from Jamaica. With all due regard for the probably beneficent effects of an airport situate at this Colombian seaport, the city is so far from being a product of the Machine Age that a really efficient manifestation of the Machine Age in that quarter probably would have ruined Barranquilla, for the community owes its prime prosperity to a sandbar at the mouth of the Magdalena that obliges the trade of the country to pass as it does. Until the middle of the 19th century the sandbar was insufficiently piled up by the sea to prevent the commerce going to Cartagena.

It may seem that stress has been placed too heavily on the effects of aviation in creating new cities. This may be, but it has been done deliberately. The achievements of the airplane have been more spectacular in this regard, than those of any other very recent innovation. Apart from the greater freedom of the bus in making detours, its land developments are much the same as those of the railroad.

The radio is not calculated to make persons move about as much as to stay at home. The Martin Johnsons in Africa, and Admiral Byrd in Antarctica, no doubt have derived through broadcasts great comfort and sense of nearness to their own people; but primarily, the radio, in its social effects, is a reason not to travel. It increases the sense of security on the high seas and in the four corners of Voliva's earth; in especial adaptations it returns accurate soundings and positions to vessels groping in fog; it apprehends criminals while they are still in the act. Yet, by and large it is, like the telephone, the printing press and the movie, a consolidation, not a territorial expansion, of life—a secondary influence.

It is to the airplane chiefly that Americans owe their new acquaintance with important cities of foreign countries. All of South America that the average United States citizen could name a few years ago were Buenos Aires, Rio de Janiero and Lima. Now he knows of another Bogota, in addition to the one in New Jersey, and he knows with a touch of pride how to pronounce it differently. He has heard of Maracaibo, Manaos, Salinas, Montevideo, Bahia, Asuncion and La Paz; and one of these days he will be able to locate in addition, Antofagasta, Porto Alegre, Fortaleza and Belem.

More Spanish names creep in from Mexico. Chihuahua entered first on the tongue-twister theory of Popocatapetl, followed presently by Nogales, Torreon and Tampico. From Alaska the Yukon gold rush days already had made familiar Juneau Fairbanks, Dawson, Nome, White horse, Skagway, Anchorage and Seward, now supplemented with Atlin, Nenana, Aniak, Kaltskag, Tanana and Nulato.

But why enumerate? With progress moving as rapidly as it does, the next few years will tell the tale.

Phantom Clause

(*Continued from page* 16)

the day the treaty was signed. The Peace Conference was over and there were other things to think about, thank God. The treaty with the enormous maps not included in copies printed for popular circulation, went into a filing cabinet where it remained, the leaves uncut.

In common with almost everyone he met, this writer argued about the justice, or rather the injustice, of a war-guilt verdict against a whole people, never taking the trouble to see if one really existed.

It was many years before any doubt arose. Then musty nosed historians began digging about in the archives, stenographic notes, minutes, scraps of memoranda and all the paper leftovers of the Conference which had been shipped out to the old Chateau of Vincennes, east of Paris, for storage. The history professors found surprising things, and published thin, dull-looking little brochures, read by fewer persons than read the treaties. But they dragged out the truth, little by little, and there it is.

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